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The *Imparfait Lorrain* in the Context of Grammaticalization

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The *Imparfait Lorrain* in the Context of Grammaticalization

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Dedication

To my husband, whose love knows no boundaries

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The *Imparfait Lorrain* in the Context of Grammaticalization

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This dissertation investigates the origins and development of the so-called *imparfait lorrain* (IL), a unique verbal formation in an obsolescent variety of French (Lorrain) that is comprised of the *imparfait indicatif* inherited from Latin and the Old French temporal adverb *or(es)* ‘now, at the time’. This study has two main goals: (1) to provide a finer-grained analysis of the functions of the IL and (2) to demonstrate that the origins and development of the IL are shaped by principles of grammaticalization (Heine, Claudi, & Hünnemeyer 1991; Bybee, Perkins, & Pagliuca 1994; Hopper & Traugott 2003; Heine & Kuteva 2002). In reviewing and discussing the existing literature on the IL, I find that previous studies have painted an inconsistent picture of the form’s origins and function(s). In light of a larger data set, my analysis reveals that as part of the IL, the erstwhile temporal adverb *or(es)* has acquired non-temporal functions in so far as *or(es)* behaves as a textual connective and as a modal particle. As a textual connective, *or(es)* relates two textually expressed events through a resultative relation; as a modal particle, *or(es)* indexes the speaker’s beliefs and attitudes and is thus epistemic in nature. Lastly, I found that the modal function of the IL may have been recruited for a discourse-structuring use to highlight new information. I then reassess the IL with respect to the parameters and mechanisms underlying a grammaticalization process. Crucially, and with particular emphasis on the grammaticalization of *or(es)*, I find that generalization,

subjectification, decategorialization, and phonological changes figure prominently into the development of the IL. By giving a more comprehensive and unified account of the IL, the dissertation contributes to the study of modal particles and draws attention to an understudied and obsolescent variety of French.

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Abbreviations

1	first person
2	second person
3	third person
ABE	<i>Traduction de la première épître de P. Abélard</i>
ABL	ablative
ACC	accusative
ADV	adverb
ALF	<i>Atlas linguistique de la France</i>
ALLR	<i>Atlas linguistique et ethnographique de la Lorraine romane</i>
ALVM	<i>Atlas linguistique des Vosges méridionales</i>
BFM	<i>Base de Français Médiéval</i>
BSPV	<i>Bulletin de la Société philomatique vosgienne</i>
COND	conditional
CPG	<i>Courails de paix et de guerre</i>
DAT	dative
DM	discourse marker
DSNS	<i>Du Sel de nos salines</i>
F	feminine
FDP	<i>Les Fitabôles du pâpiche</i>
FUT	future
GEN	genitive
GER	gerund
HRPLF	<i>Histoires et racontages en patois lorrain et en français</i>
II	indicative imperfect
IL	<i>imparfait lorrain</i>
LOC	locative
IMP	imperative
IND	indicative
INF	infinitive
LPL	<i>Le Pays lorrain</i>
M	masculine
MP	modal particle
MSAL	<i>Mémoires de la Société d'archéologie lorraine</i>
NCA	<i>Nouveau Corpus d'Amsterdam</i>
NEG	negative
NEUT	neuter
NOM	nominative
OF	Old French
PART	participle
PASS	passive
PAST	past

PERF	perfective
PL	plural
PP	past participle
PRES	present
PRET	preterite
PRT	particle
REFL	reflexive
REL	relative
SF	Standard French
SG	singular
SUBJ	subjunctive

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

Lorrain, an obsolescent variety of French spoken in eastern France, and Standard French share many of the same verbal forms, but a striking difference between some varieties of Lorrain and Standard French is the existence of a ‘second’ imperfect and pluperfect paradigm. These are labeled as *imparfait (ii)* and *plus-que-parfait (ii)* respectively and given in bold in Table 1.

Table 1: 1SG indicative verbal paradigms of *a^ovour* ‘have’ in Lorrain and *avoir* ‘have’ in Standard French (adapted from Lemasson (1927: 173))

	Lorrain	Standard French	
<i>présent</i>	<i>j’a</i>	<i>j’ai</i>	‘I have’
<i>passé composé</i>	<i>j’a èvu</i>	<i>j’ai eu</i>	‘I have had’
<i>imparfait</i>	<i>j’a^owè</i>	<i>j’avais</i>	‘I had’
<i>imparfait (ii)</i>	<i>j’a^owè zo</i>		‘I had’
<i>passé simple</i>	<i>j’aureu</i>	<i>j’eus</i>	‘I had’
<i>plus-que-parfait</i>	<i>j’a^owè èvu</i>	<i>j’avais eu</i>	‘I had had’
<i>plus-que-parfait (ii)</i>	<i>j’a^owè zo èvu</i>		‘I had had’
<i>futur simple</i>	<i>j’èra</i>	<i>j’aurai</i>	‘I will have’

As shown in Table 1, Standard French possesses only one form of the indicative imperfect (i.e., *imparfait*) and indicative pluperfect (i.e., *plus-que-parfait*). The *imparfait*,

derived from Latin (1), is a synthetic tense that combines both past temporal reference and imperfective aspect as in *je chantais* ‘I was singing’. The *plus-que-parfait*, an analytic form consisting of an auxiliary verb (e.g. *avoir* ‘have’ or *être* ‘be’) in the imperfect plus a past participle, is used to express an anterior state or event in relation to another past event or state as in *j’avais chanté* ‘I had sung’.

(1) Evolution of imperfect endings (adapted from Lanly (1977: 24))

	Latin	Old French	Modern French
1SG	<i>-ebam</i>	<i>-oie, -ois (< -eie)</i>	<i>-ais</i>
2SG	<i>-ebas</i>	<i>-ois < -eies, -oies</i>	<i>-ais</i>
3SG	<i>-ebat</i>	<i>-ei(e)t, -oit</i>	<i>-ait</i>
1PL	<i>-ebamus</i>	<i>-iiens or -iens</i>	<i>-ions</i>
2PL	<i>-ebatis</i>	<i>-iiez or -iez</i>	<i>-iez</i>
3PL	<i>-ebant</i>	<i>-oient (< -eient)</i>	<i>-aient</i>

Henceforth, I will refer to the indicative imperfect and indicative pluperfect, the forms used in Standard French, as the *imparfait standard* ‘standard imperfect’ (henceforth IS) and *plus-que-parfait standard* (henceforth PPS) respectively in order to clearly differentiate them from the non-standard forms (i.e., Lorrain forms). For the sake of consistency and clarity, I will refer to the non-standard paradigms as the *imparfait lorrain* (henceforth IL), a term borrowed from the *Atlas linguistique et ethnographique de Lorraine romane* (Lanher, Laitize, & Richard 1979), and *plus-que-parfait lorrain* (henceforth PPL), respectively.

Many scholars have weighed in on the question of the rare and anomalous Lorrain paradigms. Earlier work on this topic has been mainly concerned with describing the geographic distribution (Gilliéron & Edmont 1910; Lanher, Laitize, & Richard 1979) and

function (Oberlin 1970[1775]; Jouve 1864; Adam 1881; de Lazarque 1883; Hingre 1887) of the non-standard forms. The geographic pattern of the IL and PPL reveals several purported orthographic variants with respect to the IL's endings:

(2) Variants of the IL (and PPL) endings (Adam 1881: 173)

- a. *-or, -ore, -ôr, -aur*
- b. *-zor, -sor*
- c. *-zo, -zô, -zau*
- d. *-zeur, -seur*
- e. *-zeu*
- f. *-zar, -sar*
- g. *-za, -sa*
- h. *-zooue¹*
- i. *-tor, -tore, -taur, -taure*
- j. *-to*

One issue is that some scholars tended to interpret the IL endings (and its orthographic variants) in (2) as something other than a verbal affix. A second issue is that, even after over three hundred years of study, the function of the IL and PPL with respect to the IS and PPS is still unclear. The lack of clarity has led scholars to propose differing terms and interpretations to describe the paradigmatic opposition between the IL and IS, as shown in (3):

¹ There appears to be a circumflex accent on the second vowel. Because the circumflex accent is not clearly legible in Adam (1881), I present the form without the diacritic.

(3) Differing terminology applied to IL/IS opposition

- a. *Imparfait prochain* ‘near imperfect’ (IL) vs. *imparfait distant* ‘distant imperfect’ (IS) (Adam 1881; Haillant 1885; de Lazarque 1883; Lemasson 1927; Martin 1939); *imparfait proche* ‘near imperfect’ (IL) vs. *imparfait simple* ‘simple imperfect’ (IS) (Aub-Büscher 1962)
- b. *Erweiterten Imperfeckt* ‘expanded imperfect’ (Horn 1922) (IL) vs. *gewöhnlichen Imperfeckt* ‘normal, ordinary imperfect’ (IS) (Franz 1920; cited in Horn 1922)
- c. *Imparfait marqué* (IL) vs. *imparfait non-marqué* (IS) (Richard 1973)

The definitions in (3) show that scholars propose that a recent versus distant past specification underlies the paradigmatic opposition, hence the terms *imparfait prochain* ‘near imperfect’/*imparfait distant* ‘distant imperfect’ and *imparfait proche* ‘near imperfect’/*imparfait simple* ‘simple imperfect’. In (3), the paradigmatic opposition is purportedly tied to information structure - the IL is used to express new information while the IS is tied to old information. In (3), the *imparfait marqué* is proposed to be directly linked to discourse unity whereas the *imparfait non-marqué* expresses a bounded past imperfective situation.

A third issue concerns the prevailing hypothesis that the IL formed from the fusion of the Old French temporal adverb *or(es)* ‘now, at the time’ with the IS, (4):

- (4) *il chantor* < *il chantait or*
he sing.3SG.IL he sing.3SG.IS ORES²
‘he was singing.’ ‘he was now singing.’
(Horn 1922: 271)

² I gloss *or(es)* and its orthographic variants (e.g., *ore* and *or*) as ORES throughout for the sake of consistency.

However, an adverb affixing to a verbal stem is not what we would expect to find given that Romance inflections (e.g., the French inflectional future and inflectional conditional) form through the fusion of two elements, a verb and an auxiliary verb. Particularly intriguing is that this process of fusion has not occurred elsewhere in Romance. Thus, the IL, to the best of my knowledge, is not a Pan-Romance phenomenon, but is restricted to Lorrain.

In my analysis, I attempt to address these three issues by giving a comprehensive and unified account of the IL in the framework of grammaticalization (Heine, Claudi, & Hünnemeyer 1991; Bybee, Perkins, & Pagliuca 1994; Hopper & Traugott 2003; Heine & Kuteva 2002). This dissertation has two main goals: (1) to reassess the functions of the IL (and PPL) in light of a larger data set and (2) to demonstrate that the origins and development of the IL are shaped by principles of grammaticalization. Specifically, I claim that during the grammaticalization process, the IL, and in particular the adverb *or(es)*, underwent the well-attested trajectory in (5), e.g., German modal particles (MPs) among other phenomena:

- (5) referential function > text-connection function > indexical-grammatical function
 (Diewald, Kresic & Smirnova 2009)

At the semantic level, the temporal (i.e., referential) meaning of the adverb *or(es)* derives from a more basic and concrete local meaning (e.g., Latin *hora* ‘hour’). The temporal meaning gives rise to a logical, resultative (i.e., textual/connective) relationship between two propositions, and further develops discourse-pragmatic (i.e., indexical-grammatical) meanings. The semantic changes in (5) lead to changes at the morphosyntactic level. Thus, I also propose that the IL underwent the well-attested grammaticalization trajectory

in (6) wherein a full lexical item acquires more grammatical morphosyntactic status as it moves further to the right on the lexical-grammatical continuum:

- (6) content item > grammatical word > clitic > inflectional affix (Hopper & Traugott 2003: 7)

1.2 Data and methods

1.2.1 EMPIRICAL BASIS

My description and analysis of the IL is based on data from a corpus of texts compiled primarily from periodicals, monographs, books, and anthologies. In determining the grammaticalization of the IL, the overall goal was to prioritize the different uses of the form from a qualitative perspective in order to document all possible meaning extensions.

1.2.2 CORPORA USED

Investigating rare phenomena is in itself a challenge, due to the infrequency of the forms. Designing a study around such a rare form adds another layer of difficulty because it is not clear in which texts such a form would appear. In order to build a corpus, I primarily targeted texts from the Vosges, Meurthe-et-Moselle, and Meuse regions, since previous studies have shown that these are the regions in which the IL form is primarily attested (Gilliéron & Edmont 1902; Bloch 1917; Lanher, Litaize, & Richard 1979). Thus, texts from the region of La Moselle are to some extent under-represented. I also only targeted

texts written in the Lorrain variety based on the observation that the IL is not used in regional French (i.e., Standard French with regional features such as vocabulary).

The corpora used span both digital and non-digital formats. The digital formats include periodicals, monographs, and books while anthologies are representative of the non-digital format. I performed a manual search through both digital and non-digital formats for evidence of the forms under investigation. Texts were included in the corpus if they attested an IL/PPL or what appeared to be an IL/PPL form. Since I was unable to search all texts, there are potentially more texts that were set aside in which the IL/PPL forms are attested. I would also like to note that a Standard French translation accompanied many of the Lorrain texts. In translating the texts from Lorrain to English, I consulted the accompanying Standard French translation and Lorrain grammars and dictionaries. In the following subsection, I provide a brief overview about each type of source followed by a discussion about problems related to the texts considered in the study.

1.2.2.1 PERIODICALS

Three periodicals – *Le Pays lorrain* (LPL), *Mémoires de la Société d'archéologie lorraine* (MSAL), and *Bulletin de la Société philomatique vosgienne* (BSPV) – are digital periodicals accessed through *Gallica*, an online database created and managed by the *Bibliothèque Nationale de France*. *Le Pays lorrain*, founded by Charles Sadoul, was first published in 1904 by the *Société d'archéologie lorraine*. A multitude of collaborators cover a wide array of topics ranging from *littérature* ‘literature’, *beaux-arts* ‘fine art’, *histoire* ‘history’, and *tradition populaire* ‘popular tradition’ dedicated to the region of

Lorraine and its inhabitants. The *Mémoires de la Société d'archéologie lorraine*, also published by the *Société d'archéologie lorraine*, bears a striking resemblance to its sister publication. First published in 1859, this periodical primarily focuses on the historical aspect of the region of Lorraine. Lastly, the *Bulletin de la Société philomatique vosgienne*, published by the *Société philomatique vosgienne*, first appeared in 1875. In the statutes, it states its main goal as “développer le goût des choses, littéraires, scientifiques et artistiques; de rechercher et de conserver tout ce qui se rattache à l'histoire du pays...” [to develop the taste of things literary, scientific and artistic; research and conserve all that is attached to history of the country...] (no page given).³ In a similar vein to the two aforementioned periodicals, the *Bulletin de la Société philomatique vosgienne* is also comprised of a multitude of articles submitted by various collaborators.

1.2.2.2 MONOGRAPHS

Two of several monographs produced in the nineteenth century on the dialect of Lorrain provide dialectal texts in which the IL is attested: *Les Patois lorrains* (Adam 1881) and *Coup d'oeil sur le patois vosgien* (Jouve 1864), both available from Google Books. The first of these is the result of a survey begun in 1874 and published in 1881 under the direction of *L'Académie de Stanislas*. In his preface, Adam (1881) details how the collaborators played an integral part in the survey, providing dialectal texts, grammatical rules, and dialectal vocabulary:

³ All English translations are mine unless otherwise specified.

nous invitons nos collaborateurs à fournir sur le patois parlé soit dans la commune où ils sont nés, soit dans celle où ils résident, des documents de trois sortes: 1^o des textes; 2^o des renseignements grammaticaux; 3^o un vocabulaire restreint aux mots les plus usuels. [We invited our collaborators to submit either the dialect spoken in the commune where they were born or where they live, three types of documents: 1st texts; 2nd grammatical rules; 3rd a select vocabulary of common words] (p. III)

The second monograph, *Coup d'oeil sur le patois vosgien*, is much more limited in scope in that it describes the dialects spoken only in Vosges, the southern-most region of Lorraine. Jouve (1864) seems to have compiled a corpus of written dialectal texts as well as elicited spoken data from informants.

1.2.2.3 BOOKS/ANTHOLOGIES

The *Parabole de l'enfant prodigue en divers dialectes, patois de la France* (Favre 1879) was accessed online through the Internet Archive. The publication of the parable, which was translated into eighty-eight different dialects, was first begun under the Bureau de la Statistique, subsequently under the direction of La Société des Antiquaires de France and lastly by Favre. *Les Fitabôles du pâpiche: contes de Lorraine-Moselle* (FDP) (L'Hôte 1946) was written by Georges L'Hôte and published in the mid-twentieth century.

The two anthologies from which data were culled are *Courails de paix et de guerre* (CPG) (Rousselot 1924), *Du Sel de nos salines – nouveaux courails* (DSNS) (Rousselot 1926). CPG and DSNS were published in the early twentieth century and are compiled by Fernand Rousselot, a native Lorrain who learned the local dialect from his grandmother. Each anthology represents a collection of texts from various authors, the majority of which are unknown.

1.3 Text type and corpus size

The 86 texts from which the data were culled were primarily from two genres: prose (i.e., *fiauves* ‘folktales’) and verse (i.e., *chansons* ‘songs’). There is a small percentage of texts that mix prose and verse. The complete list of texts with title, provenance (when specified) and date (when specified) is given in the Appendix.

1.4 Problems with the texts

There are a number of problems associated with the study of the IL. First and foremost, the majority of texts examined in the study lack specific dates. Dates are important in grammaticalization studies, and to historical linguistics in general, because they are employed to corroborate hypotheses about historical language change. Additionally, if a date is indicated in the text it is typically an approximation.

As for the occurrence of the IL, the date of publication of the periodical in which a specific text appears is unreliable, given that these texts were most likely composed prior to the periodical’s publication date. This claim is based on the observation that folktales and songs are indicative of oral transmission from previous generations. Thus, it is unclear if these texts were composed at a time prior to the date of the publication, in the same year as the date of the periodical publication, or if they were copied down from memory at an earlier date or the date at which the periodical was published. Despite this challenge, it is still possible to reconstruct the semantic-pragmatic changes that the IL underwent in the absence of dating. I follow Traugott’s lead and appeal to the processes

of semantic change as the major guiding criteria for reconstructing the semantic-pragmatic changes.

The second major issue is that the authenticity of the texts may be called into question. For instance, the text *Traduction en patois du Pays de Toul, d'une bulle du souverain pontife Pie IX* (Guillaume 1865) was excluded from the sample because it is a translation into Lorrain by M. l'Abbé Guillaume, a non-native speaker, based on an original text written in Latin. Guillaume states that he was able to render the translation as close as possible to how it would have been a century or more ago, ensuring that he carefully duplicated as authentically as possible the style and grammar of Lorrain by enlisting the participation of local inhabitants of Toul who spoke French and had never left the local area. Yet, based on his description of his consultants, it remains unclear to what extent this group of people were actual native speakers of Lorrain. Furthermore, he does not posit any grammatical rules to differentiate the IL from the IS, stating only that:

Ainsi pour exprimer l'imparfait du verbe être à la troisième personne du pluriel, on dit à Pagney: l'étaient to, à Francheville l'étaient zo; ailleurs on dit l'étaient ta et dans un autre endroit l'étaient za. [Also for expressing the imperfective of the verb 'be' in the third person plural, one says in Pagney: l'étaient to, in Francheville l'étaient zo; elsewhere one says l'étaient ta and in another place l'étaient za] (p. 128)

Guillaume does not specify that the IL is attested for other forms other than the third person plural even though he reports them, as shown in (7), with the third person singular:

- (7) ...mà seulesmot let sanctificàtion de let Virge que l' Eglise
but only the sanctity of the Virgin that the church

honouraut to.

honor.3SG IL

‘...but only the sanctity of the Virgin that the Church was honoring.’ (*Traduction en patois du Pays de Toul, d’une bulle du souverain pontife Pie IX*, MSAL, 1865, p. 140)

Due to the questionable use of the IL, I excluded the text from the sample.

Moreover, many of these texts are copies, either by hand or printed, of older sources.⁴ A bit of caution is also called for concerning the oral transmission of folktales and songs since orally transmitted texts can be considerably cleaned up. This implies that there is a chance that the IL may have been copied down incorrectly or edited out. Observe the difference between two versions of the same text, *La Noce de la Génie*, the first published in 1929 in *Le Pays lorrain*, which includes the IL (8), and the second published in 2010 in *Histoires et racontages en patois lorrain et en français* (Mougin 2010),⁵ without it (9):

⁴ Jouve (1864) notes that M. Ballon of Epinal copied two of the songs compiled in *Recueil nouveau de vieux Noël inédits* from an older manuscript. Whether the manuscript from which the texts were copied is an original or a copy itself remains unknown.

⁵ *Histoires et racontages en patois lorrain et en français*, published in 2010, is a compilation of texts from various regions, dialects, and authors comprised primarily of texts already published in the aforementioned *Le Pays lorrain*.

- (8) *Qu' ost -ce que c' ost qu' l' houme-lè*
 who be.3SG.PRES it that it be.3SG.PRES that the man-there
- qu' servo-to⁶ è tauye évaou eune capote nore et eune grévète*
 that serve.3SG-IL at table with a coat black and a tie
- bianche?*
 white (*La Noce de la Génie*, LPL, 1929, p. 179)
- (9) *Qu' ost -ce que c' ost qu' l' houme-lè*
 who be.3SG.PRES it that it be.3SG.PRES that the man-there
- qu' servo è tauye évao eune capote nore et eune grévète*
 that serve.3SG.IS at table with a coat black and a tie
- bianche?*
 white (*La Noce de la Génie* [Mougin 2010: 22])
 'Who was the man there that was serving at the table with a black military coat
 and a white tie.'

Given that the two texts are almost identical, the example in (9) clearly illustrates that the IL was omitted from HRPLF. Jouve (1867), in his preface to *Recueil nouveau de vieux noëls inédits*, states that some of the songs the he included in the compilation (a portion of which were obtained from songs printed in the press) had to be corrected due to “*la negligence des imprimeurs*” ‘the negligence of the printers’ (p. 370). In sum, it is difficult to know with certainty the extent to which the texts under investigation are truly authentic in nature.

1.5 Exclusions

As previously noted (section 1.1), the IL is hypothesized to be comprised of two parts: the *imparfait* and *or(es)*, the latter of which has several orthographic variants (see (2)). In

⁶ The top part of the letter *t* is missing in the text.

identifying tokens of the IL, I encountered lexical items homophonous with the orthographic variants of *or(es)*. For instance, the variant *-to* is homophonous with the lexical item *to* ‘all’, ‘early’ (French *tout* and *tôt* respectively), the variant *-zo* is homophonous with *zo* ‘on’, ‘under’, ‘their’ (French *sur*, *dessous*, and *leur* respectively), and *-za* is homophonous with *za*, the present indicative third person singular form of *avoir* ‘have’ preceded by the liaison consonant [z], (10):

- (10) *L' père leu [z]a fait l' partage ed sin bien.*
the father him have.3SG.PRES do.PP the share of his property
‘The father shared with him his half of the property.’ (*Parabole de l'enfant prodigue*, 1879, p. 18, line 12)

The latter two items, the lexical item *zo* and the liaison [z] + *a* ‘have.3SG.PRES’ were easily identifiable from the context and excluded from the sample.

When I encountered texts originating from the areas in which *-to* was the allomorph of the IL (i.e., Barrois), I relied primarily on orthography to disambiguate the morpheme *-to* from the lexical item *to* ‘all’, ‘early’; the grammatical morpheme *-to* is indicated by a dash e.g., *avo-to* and lexical *to* is represented without a dash.⁷ If orthography was not a reliable indicator by itself, I relied on the context. Consider (11), where we see the IL with and without a dash in the same sentence:

⁷ The most problematic case is the use of *to(t)* in the Barrois text *Le crayotte dul zidore* because it is the only instance where *to* is represented with a final *t*. Based on the context, it does not appear to be mean ‘all’ or ‘early’ and so was not excluded.

- (11) *I ai'vo-to l' abre dafadu: Eve o⁸ n' ai*
 he has.3SG-IL the tree forbid.PP Eve some NEG have.3SG.PRES
- mainge, Adam l' goulou y touché co si ben*
 eat.PP Adam the glutton it touch.PAST still so well
- qu' j atins pardus Si l' divin Jasu N' avo to*
 that we have.2PL.II lost.PP if the divine Jesus NEG have.3SG IL
- v'neu n' sauver.*
 come.PP us save.INF
 'There was the forbidden tree; Eve ate from it, Adam the glutton ate it too so
 that we would have been lost if the divine Jesus had not come to save us.' (*Noël
 de Ligny*, MSAL, 1894, p. 344-345)

In (11), *avo to* is identified as the IL since the meanings 'all' and 'early' cannot be attributed to *to* in this context. Thus, only instances of post-verbal *to* which clearly meant 'all' or 'early' were excluded from the sample.

Tokens were further excluded from the sample if they were classified as homophonous verbal forms that did not constitute a true token of past temporal reference. Take, for instance, the infinitival forms *pouvoir* 'able' in (12) and *ottore* 'be' in (13):

- (12) *Pourtan jè dotte bin de n' pouvoir mi entrai to*
 however I doubt.1SG.PRES well of NEG able.INF NEG enter.INF all
- drâ Pairaidis...*
 straight to Heaven
 'However, I really doubt (her) not being able to enter straight into Heaven.' (*Lo Pouoteu de l'esprit*, LPL, 1923, p. 80)

⁸ It is possible that *o* is the negative marker and that *n* refers to Standard French *en*, which follows the negative marker *ne* (e.g., *Je n'en veux pas* 'I don't want any').

- (13) *Ç' ot comme lo miné dè Vocquenou, vos*
 it have.3SG.PRES like the miller of Vacquenbach you
- ot estu o sebbet sans otorre mouarquai èvonne*
 have.2PL.PRES be.PP to sabbath without be.INF mark.PP with
- lè zingue do diabe, et pou celet, vo sèvi, y*
 the nail of-the devil and for this you know.2PL.PRES he
- feu chaingi in bourrique.*
 be.3SG.PAST change.PP in donkey
 'It is like the miller of Vacquenbach, you had been at the Sabbath without being marked by the devil's nails, and for this, you know, he had been changed into a donkey.' (*Lo Lai ensorcelai*, LPL, 1912, p. 51)

Based on the context we can see that these are true infinitival forms and that the homophony with the IL form is purely coincidental.

1.6 Aims

As previously mentioned, the IL is an anomalous verbal paradigm that appears to be restricted to the variety of French known as Lorrain. Despite previous attempts to account for the form, there has yet to be a comprehensive and unified account of the phenomenon. Thus, the present study is important because it is the first contemporary work to couch the emergence and functions of the IL in a more comprehensive manner. Additionally, the present study contributes to the topic of grammaticalization, with particular emphasis on the grammaticalization of modal particles in non-standard varieties. Lastly, by examining the IL in Lorrain, my study will give researchers a starting point for future research on Lorrain. Thus, my study draws attention to an understudied, obsolescent variety of French.

1.7 Organization

The organization of the dissertation is as follows: Chapter 2 is a discussion of grammaticalization, the theoretical background used in this project to understand the development of the IL in a more comprehensive and unified manner. In Chapter 3, I focus on the geographic distribution of the IL with respect to three different linguistic atlases. Chapter 3 is important for language documentation since a detailed description of the IL variants and their geographic distribution has never been done before. Chapter 4 reviews a number of previous assessments on the IL mentioned in the literature. In Chapter 5, I present my analysis of the IL, examining several tokens of the IL from the texts. Next, in Chapter 6, I discuss in more detail the theoretical concepts introduced in Chapter 2 and how they factor into the development of the IL. In Chapter 7, I summarize my findings and suggest further areas for research.

CHAPTER 2

GRAMMATICALIZATION

2.1 Introduction

For over three centuries philologists and dialectologists have been attempting to account for the origins of the IL and identify its functions. However, these previous studies have been essentially atheoretical in nature and failed to capture the use and evolution of the IL in a principled and unified theoretical framework. Thus, in this chapter, I discuss how the framework of grammaticalization offers an explanation for how and why grammatical categories develop. I also show that grammaticalization is a process in so far as there are distinct and interrelated components involved in the development of lexical to grammatical.

The chapter is organized as follows. First, I give a basic introduction to grammaticalization, reviewing some canonical instances of the phenomenon and other notions critical to understanding the development and function of the IL (section 2.2). Special emphasis is given to semantic change, which, in my opinion, has not been fully explored with respect to the IL (section 2.3). Next, I discuss some critiques of the theory to round out the discussion (section 2.4). Overall, I draw upon different but complementary grammaticalization approaches to give a fuller and richer picture of the notions and concepts crucial to understanding the IL from a more in-depth perspective. Lastly, I introduce a discussion of the grammaticalization of *or(es)* ‘now’ from a

temporal adverb into a discourse marker in Old French, an aspect that has been ignored in previous studies on the IL. I then connect this discussion to the grammaticalization of German MPs (section 2.5). I conclude the chapter with a brief summary of the concepts discussed in the chapter in section 2.6.

2.2 Processes and hypotheses

Grammaticalization refers to the process wherein a lexical item develops into a grammatical formative through a gradual series of changes (phonological, semantic, syntactic), entailing, at the conceptual/cognitive level, a change from more concrete or basic notions to more abstract notions (e.g., space > time). Central to grammaticalization is the notion that conceptual factors and context-induced reinterpretation motivate the change from concrete to abstract (Heine, Claudi, & Hünemeyer 1991; Hopper & Traugott 2003). Importantly, grammaticalization is viewed as a unidirectional and potentially incremental cline, illustrated in (14):

- (14) content item > grammatical word > clitic > inflectional affix (Hopper & Traugott 2003: 7)

A good example of grammaticalization that scales the entire cline in (14) is the development of the French synthetic future, which derives from a periphrastic construction involving a verb in the infinitive followed by the verb *habere* ‘have’ in the present indicative in Classical Latin. From Classical Latin to Late Latin, the full lexical verb *habere* develops into a grammatical word expressing obligation, becoming increasingly fixed to the infinitive, indicated by the loss of the structural boundary (i.e.,

rebracketing) between the infinitive and *habere*. From there, *habere* develops an abstract meaning of future time, undergoing phonological reduction and becoming fully inflectional as evidenced by the synthetic form in French. As the cline suggests, the grammaticalization process is unidirectional - the left side represents the least grammaticalized stage and the right side the most grammaticalized stage.

(15) The development of the French synthetic future

Classical Latin		Late Latin		French
[[cantare] habeo]	>	[cantare habeo]	>	(je) chanterai
sing.INF have.1SG.PRES		sing.INF have.1SG.PRES		I sing.1SG.FUT
'I have to sing'		'I have to sing'		'I will sing'

(based on Hopper & Traugott 2003: 55, example 14)

In earlier work on grammaticalization, attention was given to parameters that impacted the autonomy of a linguistic sign; the more grammaticalized a linguistic sign is the less autonomy it will have and vice versa. According to Lehmann (2002[1995]), a linguistic sign's autonomy may be measured according to three principal aspects: 1) weight, 2) cohesion and 3) variability. A more autonomous sign (i.e., less grammaticalized) will have more "weight" or prominence in the syntagm than a less autonomous sign. Cohesion concerns the extent to which a sign evidences systematic contraction with other signs. The more cohesion a sign evidences the more grammaticalized it is and vice versa. Lastly, the higher variability or mobility a sign has, the higher degree of autonomy it has and vice versa.

Lehmann further identifies six parameters, integrity, scope, paradigmaticity, bondedness, paradigmatic variability and syntagmatic variability, to represent the degree to which a sign is grammaticalized on a synchronic scale with respect to paradigmatic and syntagmatic axes:

The weight of a sign viewed paradigmatically, is its **integrity**, its substantial size, both on the semantic and phonological sides. Viewed syntagmatically, it is its **structural scope**, that is, the extent of the construction which it enters or helps to form. The cohesion of a sign with other signs in a paradigm will be called its **paradigmaticity**, that is, the degree to which it enters a paradigm, is integrated into it and dependent on it. The cohesion of a sign with other signs in a syntagm will be called its **bondedness**; this is the degree to which it depends on, or attaches to, such other signs. The **paradigmatic variability** of a sign is the possibility of using other signs in its stead or of omitting it altogether. The **syntagmatic variability** of a sign is the possibility of shifting it around in its construction. (Lehman 2002[1995]: 110)

The relationship of these parameters is shown below in Table 2:

Table 2: Parameters of grammaticalization (Lehmann 2002[1995]: 110)

	paradigmatic	syntagmatic
Weight	Integrity	structural scope
Cohesion	paradigmaticity	bondedness
Variability	paradigmatic variability	syntagmatic variability

To work on a diachronic dimension, the above parameters are reformulated as processes, (16a-f):

- (16)
- a. Attrition - decrease in phonological and semantic integrity of a sign
 - b. Paradigmaticization - the process by which differences among members are leveled out to form tightly integrated paradigms
 - c. Obligatorification - loss of optionality of a sign
 - d. Condensation - reduction in the structural scope a sign
 - e. Coalescence - increase in bondedness whereby a sign weakens and loses its morphological boundaries
 - f. Fixation - process by which a sign loses its syntagmatic variability and comes to occupy a fixed slot

Lehmann (1985: 307-308) discusses the grammaticalization of Latin *ad* 'at, towards' and *de* 'down from' to French *à* 'to' and *de* 'from' respectively to provide examples of the above processes. Latin *ad* underwent a process of attrition; the final consonant *d* eroded resulting in reduction in phonological content. There was also erosion of semantic substance since Latin *ad* lost the concrete local feature. French *à* and *de* are more tightly integrated into the paradigm of oblique cases than they were in Latin and have thus undergone paradigmaticization. Unlike Latin *de*, which is replaceable by Latin *ab* 'from' or *ex* 'out of' and could even be omitted in some contexts, French *de* expanded in its distribution and has become increasingly obligatory. The development of French *de* also shows condensation (i.e., reduction in scope). That is French *de* takes only caseless complements in contrast to its Latin counterpart which takes cased complements. An increase in bondedness goes hand in hand with phonetic reduction; French *à* and *de* combine with the direct article *le* 'the' to form *au* and *du* respectively, a process that was

not permitted in Latin. Finally, French *à* and *de* occupy a fixed slot before complex N(oun)P(hrases)s while their Latin predecessors had more mobility within complex NPs.

Lehmann's detailed approach has been criticized since it is only applicable to cases in which grammaticalization has reached a fairly advanced stage. Other scholars (Heine 2003: 579) have proposed the following four interrelated mechanisms/processes that highlight the importance of unidirectionality, shown in (17). Note that not all mechanisms must co-occur in a given grammaticalization process.

- (17)
- a. Desemanticization – loss in lexical meaning or content
 - b. Decategorialization – loss in morphosyntactic properties, i.e. cliticization, affixation
 - c. Extension – rise of novel grammatical meanings when used in new contexts
 - d. Erosion – loss of phonological substance

The term desemanticization is somewhat misleading since early stages of grammaticalization typically do not show bleaching (i.e., loss of meaning) but rather develop new and abstract meanings via pragmatic strengthening (Hopper & Traugott 2003). Thus, I will use the term generalization in place of desemanticization to capture the process of semantic change whereby concrete lexical meanings tend to shift to more general abstract meanings over a grammaticalization process.

As an illustration of the four mechanisms in (17), consider the well-known grammaticalization of the *have* perfect or ('have' + past participle), an innovative periphrastic form to convey anteriority in Romance, exemplified by the *passé composé* in modern-day French (18):

- (18) *J'ai écrit un livre.*
 I have.1SG.PRES write.PP a book
 'I wrote/have written a book.' (adapted from de Acosta 2011: 145)

Historically, Latin had only one form, the perfectum, to convey both current relevance

(19) and past punctual events (20):

- (19) *Me a portu praemisit domum ut haec*
 me.ACC from port.ABL sent.3SG.PERF home.ACC that these.NEUT.ACC

nuntiem uxori suae.
 tell.1SG.PRES.SUBJ wife.DAT his.F.DAT
 'He has sent me home ahead of him from the port to tell these things to his wife.'
- (20) *Optavit ut in currum patris tolleretur.*
 wish.3SG.PERF that in chariot.ACC father.GEN take.3SG.IMP.PASS.SUBJ
 '[Phaeton] wished to be taken up in his father's chariot.'
 (adapted from de Acosta 2011: 152)

The Romance periphrasis in (18) originates from a Latin transitive resultative construction consisting of the full verb *habeo* meaning 'possess' or 'hold' followed by an object + a (passive) past participle expressing a resulting state of the object "due to a former process or state in which it was involved" (Pinkster 1987: 197; cited in Cennamo 2008: 116) and was most frequently attested with verbs denoting accomplishments (e.g., *scribere* 'write'), as seen in (21):

- (21) *Ego habeo [librum scriptum].*
 I.NOM have.1SG.PRES book.SG.ACC written.SG.ACC.M
 'I hold/possess a written book' (adapted from de Acosta 2011: 145)

In its early use, the interpretation is that the resultant state of the book being written was carried out by another implied participant. In other words, the subject of *habeo*, *ego* ‘I’, is not co-referential with the agent of the past participle. Note that in the construction the past participle *scriptum* ‘written’ agrees with the object *librum* ‘book’ and forms a constituent with it.

As the construction in (21) generalizes in meaning, the full verb *habeo* loses lexical content to assume a generic relation (i.e. *j’ai faim* ‘I am hungry’ lit. ‘I have hunger’, (Salvi 1987). As a result, *habeo* no longer functions as a full verb and has undergone decategorialization, that is, a change in category status to become an auxiliary. Concomitantly, the participle also undergoes decategorialization in that it loses its adjectival properties (i.e. loss of agreement with the object noun phrase to function as a verb that signals the past action itself (Salvi 1987; Bybee, Perkins & Pagliuca 1994).

- (22) *De Caesare satis hoc tempore dictum habeo*⁹
 about Caesar enough this time say.PP have.1SG.PRES.IND
 ‘I shall regard what I have said of Gaius Caesar as sufficient at present.’ (adapted from Cennamo 2008: 117])

In (22), the subject of the sentence is co-referential with the agent of the past participle and the verb *habere* ‘have’ is interpreted as a temporal auxiliary of anteriority. At this stage, the Latin construction is interpreted as a present perfect to denote the current relevance of a past action. It has been shown that in Latin there were no dedicated positions for verb-related grammatical categories (Ledgeway 2010: 389) and thus the word order did not change the overall interpretation. This implies a functional equivalence when *habere* precedes or follows the past participle.

⁹ Note that the word order past participle + auxiliary does not have any impact on the present perfect meaning.

The data in (22) further show that the auxiliary *habere* ‘have’ and the past participle form a new structure, and that reanalysis has occurred. Reanalysis, as defined by (Langacker 1977: 58), is “change in the structure of an expression or class of expressions that does not involve any immediate or intrinsic modification of its surface manifestations.” It involves rebracketing and reassignment whereby underlying representations are modified to create new grammatical structures, as shown in (23):

- (23) *[habere] [dictum]*
 full verb (passive) past participle
 >
[habere dictum]
 auxiliary past participle

Extension obtains as a result of analogy, a process underlying the generalization of new grammatical structures to new contexts. “[T]he restrictions concerning the participles of perfective verbs with non-resultative meanings disappear” (Salvi 1987: 231). In other words, the construction becomes compatible with more verb classes such as activity verbs (22) and verbs of cognition (24):

- (24) *Cum cognitum habebas quod sit*
 when know.PP.NEUT.SG have.2SG.PRES.IND what be.2SG.PRES.SUBJ

summi rectoris... numen
 supreme.GEN lord.GEN will¹⁰
 ‘When you realize the will of the supreme lord.’ (adapted from Cennamo 2008: 118)

Once the ‘have’ perfect emerged in the grammar, in certain contexts, it entered into competition with the synthetic past (i.e., the preterit descendant of the *perfectum*).

¹⁰ Cennamo (2008) does not provide a case for *numen* ‘will’ in the original.

This competition is seen in (25) where both analytic (e.g. *habeo absolutum* ‘have finished’) and synthetic (e.g. *absolve* ‘finished’) forms may be used interchangeably to denote the current relevance of a past action (i.e. present perfect) in Late Latin:

- (25) *Quod me hortaris ut absolvam habeo*
 what I.ACC urge.2SG.PRES.IND for finish.1SG.PRES.SUBJ have.1SG.PRES.IND

absolutum (=absolve)... *epos ad Caesaram*
 finish.PP.NEUT (finish.PERF) epic to Casesar.ACC
 ‘As you to urging me to finish my job, I have now finished my epic to Caesar, and a charming one it is my opinion.’ (Pinkster 1987: 212–213 [adapted from Cennamo 2008: 119])

Note the change in word order where the past participle stands next to the auxiliary. Additionally, as the full lexical verb reaches true auxiliary status, there is a freezing or loss of optionality in the word order such that the past participle always follows the auxiliary.

In Old French a similar pattern is attested; the *passé composé* (27) may be equivalent to the *passé simple* in (26) in wholly past contexts:

- (26) *Vers le palés est alés; Il en monta les*
 towards the palace be.3SG.PRES go.PP he it climb.3SG.PAST the

*degrés...*¹¹
 stairs
 ‘He went in the direction of the palace, he climbed the stairs...’ (*Aucassin*, VII, 6–10 [Buridant 2000: 381])

¹¹ My English translation is based upon Buridant’s French translation: *Il s’est dirigé vers le palais, en a gravi les marches.*

- (27) *Par son estrier Hardréz a sus monté.*¹²
 by his stirrup Hardrez have.3SG.PRES on mount.PP
 ‘Using his stirrup, Hardrez got on the saddle.’ (*Ami*, 315 [Buridant 2000: 381])

The development of the Latin resultative construction into a perfect/past marker also shows a loss in phonological substance. From Latin to French, the full verb *habeo* ‘have’ reduced phonologically as schematized in (28):

- (28) *habeo* > *ai*

Given that the *have* + PP construction was already interchangeable with the synthetic past in certain contexts (e.g., with some verbs/predicates), it gradually ousted the synthetic past (hereafter simple past) in the present perfect function (Cennamo 2008: 120). As the present perfect (French *passé composé*) gradually extended further, it started to lose its present relevance specification. In present-day French (and other Romance varieties such as Italian and Romanian), it is now the default past tense marker as evidenced in (29):

- (29) *J’ai écrit un livre hier.*
 I have.1SG.PRES write.PP a book yesterday.
 ‘I wrote a book yesterday.’

The erstwhile *have* perfect is compatible with the past temporal adverb *hier* ‘yesterday’ to denote a wholly past event that has no connection to the present. Due to the *have* perfect’s expanding domain, the preterit is no longer used in colloquial speech as a past tense form but rather is restricted to highly formalized speech and written language.

Overall, the modern-day French periphrastic form, in comparison to its Latin counterpart, shows a loss in autonomy that is typical of grammaticalization (Lehmann

¹² My English translation is based upon Buridant’s French translation: *Mettant le pied à l’étrier, il est monté en selle.*

2002[1995]). Specifically, a construction comprised of two erstwhile independent lexical items (i.e., a verb of possession and an adjectival participle) grammaticalized into a single constituent (i.e., auxiliary and past participle) to denote anteriority/perfectivity. In some cases, grammaticalization may even lead to fusion/coalescence. A clear example of fusion is given by the French synthetic future, repeated below in (30), where the verb *habere* ‘have’ affixes to the infinitive:

(30)	Latin		French
	<i>cantare habeo</i>	>	(je) <i>chanterai</i>
	sing.INF have.1SG.PRES		I sing.1SG.FUT
	‘I have to sing’		‘I will sing’

In addition to the processes outlined above, other fundamental processes such as persistence, divergence and layering can be identified (Hopper 1991). Persistence is “[w]hen a form undergoes grammaticization from a lexical to a grammatical function, so long as it is grammatically viable some traces of its original lexical meanings tend to adhere to it, and details of its lexical history may be reflected in constraints on its grammatical distribution” (Hopper 1991: 22). For example, the lexical meaning of *habere* ‘have, possess’ feeds the perfect path since it acquired a sense of locative-possessive-existential (Hopper & Traugott 2003: 62–63), the precursor of the resultative meaning. In the inflectional future, *habere* became future-oriented via an acquired obligative sense in combination with the infinitive.

Divergence refers to the fact that the Latin verb *habere* ‘have’ diverged functionally and developed into a tense-aspect marker e.g., *j’ai chanté* ‘I sang, have sung’ and a future tense marker e.g., *-ai* in Modern French. Layering is understood as different degrees of grammaticalization within the same and/or similar functional domains. For example, the chronology of each layer of the English past tense may be determined by

structural factors such as periphrasis (newest layer) (31), affixation (middle layer) (32) and ablaut (oldest layer) (33):

(31) We have used it.

(32) I admired it.

(33) They sang.

(Hopper 1991: 24)

Also important to the process of grammaticalization are two main mechanisms underlying semantic change, metaphor and metonymy, the latter of which is tightly connected with subjectification, another pertinent notion in grammaticalization.¹³ These concepts will be discussed in the next section.

2.3 Metaphor and metonymy

Metaphor and metonymy are two major mechanisms recognized in the literature on semantic change. Heine, Claudi, & Hünnemeyer (1991) describe metaphor as conceptual transfer or conceptualizing one element in one domain in terms of another element in

¹³ Other important concepts are primary and secondary grammaticalization. Primary grammaticalization is defined as the development of a grammatical item from a lexical source. Secondary grammaticalization, on the other hand, is a process whereby an already grammatical source develops further functions and expands into other functional categories. A very clear example of these two interrelated grammaticalization stages is given by the emergence of the *passé composé* in French. During primary grammaticalization, the change from Latin to French, the auxiliary *avoir* 'have' develops into an aspectual marker and can no longer be interpreted as a separate unit, but rather as a new, unsegmentable marker of perfect aspect indicating a past event that has not necessarily finished at the moment of utterance. The further development of the perfect marker into a tense marker is categorized as secondary grammaticalization since the aspectual marker, an already grammatical item, serves as the source of the past tense marker. As a tense marker, there is a shift in focus from incompleteness of the past action to it being fully over before the moment of utterance.

another domain. An example of semantic change driven by metaphor is *grasp* ‘seize’ > ‘understand’. In contrast, metonymy relates elements through contiguity or association, for instance, the change from *cheek* ‘jaw-bone’ to ‘fleshy part above jaw-bone’ is a part-whole relationship (i.e., synecdoche).

Traugott & Dasher (2002: 80) state that, “[m]etonymy in its extended conceptual sense came to be seen as a powerful alternative to metaphor, in fact as the key to conceptualizing semantic change in context.” I follow Traugott & Dasher’s (2002) framework in which semantic change is driven by pragmatics, i.e., it is instigated in contextual use, and speakers/hearers exploit available implicatures and inferences during communication (see Traugott & Dasher (2002: 34-40) for more information on the Invited Inferencing Theory of Semantic Change). New meanings arise as a result of available inferences becoming conventionalized over time. According to Traugott (1989) the main difference between metaphor and metonymy is perspective.

The metaphoric process of mapping from one semantic domain onto another is used in the speaker’s attempt to increase the information content of an abstract notion; the process of coding pragmatic implicatures is used in the speaker’s attempt to regulate communication with others. (p. 51)

The development of causal meaning of the Old English temporal adverbs *sippan* ‘since’ and *nu* ‘now’ are instances of semantic change driven by metonymical transfer (or strengthening of informativeness). Originally, *sippan* was temporal in nature meaning ‘from the time that, after.’ The data in (34) is an example of a context in which a causal implicature can be detected alongside the temporal meaning:

- (34) *þa, siþþan he irre wæs & gewundod, he ofslog*
 then, after/since he angry was and wounded, he slaughtered
*micel pæs folces*¹⁴
 much of-that troop
 ‘Then, after/since he was angry and wounded, he slaughtered much of the troop.’
 (Or. 156.11,¹⁵ Mitchell 1985:II, 352 [Traugott & König 1991: 195])

The event of being angry and wounded follows a previous event and is inferred to be a consequence of the first event via the *post hoc* fallacy. Thus, the temporal sequence gives rise to the causal implicature.

In other contexts, a causal reading is favored over a temporal one. Take for example the generic clause modified by *siþþan* and introduced by the stative perception/mental verb ‘see, understand’ in (35). It is clear that the teaching causes the state of seeing/understanding happiness:

- (35) *Ac ic þe wille nu giet getcæcan þone weg...siððan ðu ongitst*
 but I thee will now still teach that way...since thou seest
þurh mine lare hwæt sio soðe gesæld bið, & hwær hie
 through my teaching what that true happiness is, and where it
bið
 is
 ‘But still I will now teach you that way...since through my teaching you see what true happiness is, and where it is.’ (Bo. 36 104.26¹⁶ [Traugott & König 1991: 196])

According to Traugott & König (1991), (partial) temporal overlap and not sequentiality appears to be the link to causality. This observation accounts for why

¹⁴ Only the gloss is provided in Traugott & König.

¹⁵ Or. = Orosius

¹⁶ Bo. = Boethius

temporal adverbs that can be used in both sequential and non-sequential contexts also give rise to causal inferences. An example of such a temporal adverb is Old English *nu* ‘now’. Here, in (36), temporal and causal readings are available:

- (36) *Efne nu þu eart gehæled ne synga þu heononforð*
 even now thou art saved not sing thou henceforth
 ‘Now you are saved, don’t sin from now on.’ (*ÆCHom* I,¹⁷ 24 350.21 [Traugott & König 1991: 197])

While the temporal reading is readily available through the use of temporal relations expressed by the past participle *gehæled* ‘saved’ and the adverb *heononforð* ‘henceforth’, the causal reading is conversationally implicated because the clause which *nu* modifies is a state. Thus, ‘now you are saved’ may be interpreted as ‘because you are saved’. Eventually the causal implicature was conventionalized over time, (37):¹⁸

- (37) *Untwylice þu lyhst þæt ðu god sy, nu ðu nast*
 unquestionably thou liest that thou god art, because thou not-knowest

manna gepohtas
 men’s thought
 ‘Without question you are lying when you say that you are God, because you do not know the thoughts of men.’ (*ÆCHom* I. 26.378.6 [Traugott & König 1991: 198])

In (37), the causal reading is clear since there is no change of state or tense.

The process that leads to the development of causal meaning from temporal is referred to in the literature as subjectification (Traugott 1982, 1989, 2010); subjectification is defined as the conventionalization of a more subjective/evaluative

¹⁷ *ÆCHom* I = Ælfric’s “Catholic Homilies” First Series.

¹⁸ Traugott & König (1991) hypothesize that the entry point for the semantic shift temporal > causal occurred when the matrix clause expressed a state and temporally overlapped with a causal relation. Eventually, the causal meaning disappeared.

component (i.e., causal *sibban* and *nu*) from more objective items (i.e., temporal *sibban* and *nu*) that is driven by the speaker encoding and regulating attitudes and beliefs. In this way, elements at the propositional (i.e. basic) level typically are recruited for more subjective (i.e., increase in speaker perspective) and intersubjective, (i.e., meanings centered on the addressee) purposes at the textual (i.e., connective) and interpersonal/expressive levels (i.e., presuppositional/pragmatic). This change is illustrated by the unidirectional cline in (38):

(38) Propositional > (textual >) interpersonal/expressive (Traugott 1982)

Furthermore, subjectification includes three overlapping tendencies, the third of which is fed by either of the first two:

(39) Tendency I: Meanings based in the external described situation > meanings based in the internal (evaluative/perceptual/cognitive) described situation.

Tendency II: Meanings based in the external or internal described situation > meanings based in the textual and metalinguistic situation.

Tendency III: Meanings tend to become increasingly based in the speaker's subjective belief state/attitude toward the proposition.

(Traugott 1989: 34–35)

An example of Tendency I is the change from concrete to abstract, especially physical to mental, e.g., Old English *felan* 'touch' > 'experience mentally'. Tendency II subsumes the development of textual connectives coding cohesion, evidenced by Old English *sibban* and *nu*. Tendency III includes the development of epistemic modals, the shift from temporal to concessive *while* and the development of scalar particles (e.g., *even*).

2.4 Theoretical issues

2.4.1 UNIDIRECTIONALITY

Herring (1991: 253; cited in Janda 2001: 293) states: “[o]ne of the foremost tenets in diachronic grammaticalization...is the notion of unidirectionality, according to which change in meaning from less to more grammatical is viewed as a linear and irreversible process.” In other words, there can be no *degrammaticalization*. The unidirectionality hypothesis, while one of the most central tenets of grammaticalization theory, is also the most hotly debated. In fact, opponents of grammaticalization theory, specifically of the unidirectionality hypothesis, have argued in favor of *degrammaticalization* due to a number of counter examples (Harris & Campbell 1995; Joseph & Janda 1988, 2003; Newmeyer 1998; Janda 2001; Joseph 2001) whereby a less independent item gains more syntactic freedom (i.e., affix > clitic/independent word).

An example of *degrammaticalization* is the shift of English *-ish* from an inflectional affix to a grammatical word (Norde 2009, 2010; Pierce 2014, 2015). As a bonded element, *-ish* may be a comparative suffix emphasizing similarity, (40), and a qualifying suffix denoting lack of equivalence, (41):

(40) That colour is green**ish**.

(41) John is boy**ish**.

(Norde 2009: 223)

Over time, qualifier *-ish* has undergone a change in status whereby it has become an independent word meaning ‘sort of, to an extent’, (42):

(42) Can you swim well? **Ish**. (Norde 2009: 225)

As an independent word, *-ish* has even increased in semantic substance by acquiring a more lexical meaning of ‘nothing’, (43), ‘something’, (44):

- (43) Greece is gonna change stuff, qe 3 yes or no ? Wow I don’t think anybody knows what’s going on? Theres a silver shortage, no there is no demand. Does any of these article at kitco really mean anything to any stackers? Other than emotion this causes me, the stuff I read is **ish** to me. (Youkon c, Kitco (forum), June 21, 2012, <https://www.kitcomm.com/showthread.php?p=1747365>, Pierce 2014: 117)
- (44) Yo, I’m thinking about taking a job out in Owen Sound-do you recommend this city over Barrie? You seem like a chill person with similar interests-just want to make sure there is **ish** to do on the scene. Any advice would be much appreciated. (FundedByTheMob, comment, YouTube, 2010, http://www.youtube.com/all_comments?v=dJtoEE4yhjg], Pierce 2014: 117)

In addition, *-ish* may be used a euphemistic term for ‘shit’, (45):

- (45) At what ages are you supposed to finally have your **ish** together? (Mike W., Yelp San Diego (Yelp forum), July 10, 2013, <http://www.yelp.com/topic/san-diego-at-what-age-are-you-supposed-to-finally-have-your-ish-together>], Pierce 2015: 396)

Even though there are some counter-examples to the unidirectionality hypothesis such as *-ish*, these examples remain rare in comparison to the abundant examples of well-attested patterns of grammaticalization.

2.4.2 GRAMMATICALIZATION AS AN EPIPHENOMENON

Another debate, which is tightly connected to the unidirectionality hypothesis, concerns the extent to which grammaticalization is a distinct process or comprises several processes observed in other types of linguistic change. Joseph (2001) motivates the latter claim by showing how the diachronic development of the Greek second person pronoun

tos (< *autós* ‘this’) and the future marker *θa* (< *thélo* ‘want’) are accounted for through the workings of analogy and phonetic change. With respect to *tos*, he states, “nothing special needs to be invoked for the appearance of weak subject pronouns in Greek. Specifically, no sort of “grammaticalization” as a process in and of itself is needed to lead to the form itself or to its place in the grammar” (Joseph 2001: 178). Concerning the development *θa* < *thélo* ‘want’, Joseph notes:

...they [stages of linguistic change, SR] are not guided by some “higher force” driving them on since, *ex hypothesi*, there is no process of grammaticalization; rather they are just ordinary instances of phonetic change and analogy, resulting in increased separation of main-verb *thélo*: from what ultimately became *θa*.... Therefore, it would be appear that “grammaticalization” does not need to be invoked as the force behind the ultimate formation of a grammatical morpheme for future in Greek. Well-understood processes of change other than “grammaticalization” suffice to give the ultimate result. (p. 183)

Given his claim that grammaticalization is not a distinct process, it is expected then that counterexamples to the unidirectionality hypothesis would arise.

Despite the objections to unidirectionality and to grammaticalization as a distinct process in general, proponents of grammaticalization theory present a myriad of arguments in its favor. First, counter-examples of grammaticalization are much rarer in comparison to the wealth of evidence that supports the theory (Heine 2003). Moreover, researchers have yet to find any true instances of complete grammaticalization reversals (Heine 2003). Second, Heine (2003) defends grammaticalization as a distinct process because it: (1) explains how grammatical forms arise and develop using the four main mechanisms previously discussed, and (2) accounts for how these mechanisms are interrelated within an explanatory framework. Because grammaticalization provides a principled and explanatory framework to account for diachronic phenomenon, it helps

historical linguistics explain how and why languages change in the way that they do and provides important contributions to language typology and language universals. In sum, grammaticalization may lead to innovative, unidirectional changes (e.g., change is from A > B, but not vice versa) of existing lexical stock. Despite several critics of the theory, grammaticalization still remains a useful tool for reconstructing language change from a diachronic perspective. Given this brief introduction to grammaticalization, I now move to the topic of the grammaticalization of *or(es)* in French.

2.5 Grammaticalization of *or(es)* in French¹⁹

Modern French *or(es)*, derived from the ablative Latin construction *hac hora* ‘at this time, now’, is as a concessive conjunction that signals opposition with a previous clause (46). I will continue to present *or(es)* in this manner since written forms *ore* and *or* are derived from *or(es)* and attested alongside *or(es)* in Old French.

- (46) *Vous croyez avoir raison, or vous n'avez rien prouvé.*
 You believe.2PL.PRES have.INF reason ORES you NEG have.2PL.PRES
 nothing prove.PP
 ‘You think you are right, but/however you have not proven anything.’ (Robert & Rey 2003: 1792)

Historically, this concessive meaning was just one of many values available to speakers in Old and Middle French as *or(es)* had already developed several non-temporal meanings beyond its original temporal meaning of ‘at this time, now’. The tendency for a

¹⁹ All interlinear glosses and translations of French examples are my own unless otherwise specified.

temporal adverb, any temporal unit that expresses a temporal relation or has to do with temporal reference (Borillo et al. 2004), to acquire additional meanings beyond its basic, propositional one, has been well documented in the literature (e.g., *then* (Schiffrin 1992) and *alors* ‘then’ and *donc* ‘thus’ in French (Mosegaard Hansen 1997)).

The development of *or(es)* in Old French (c. 1100 – 1350) is delineated into three stages, *adverbe de constituant* (lit. constituent adverb), *adverbe d’énoncé* (locutionary adverb), and *adverbe d’énonciation* (illocutionary adverb) (Sakari 1992; Ollier 1988; Nølle 2006; Librova 2008), or what Librova refers to as *poles grammaticaux* ‘grammatical poles’, illustrated in (47).

(47) Three grammatical poles of *or(es)* (Librova 2008)

Adverbe de constituant
Adverbe d’énoncé
Adverbe d’énonciation

Stage 1: *Adverbe de constituant*

At stage 1, *or(es)* is a temporal adverb predominantly meaning ‘now’ or ‘at present’. It scopes within the proposition and signals that the state of affairs is simultaneous with the utterance time (48):

(48) *Soient les choses el point ou elles sunt ores*
 be.3PL.SUBJ the things to.the point where they be.3PL.PRES ORES
 ‘Things being as they are now’²⁰ (Anglo-Norman letter from 1261 (AN13) [van Reenen & Schøsler 1995: 409])

Stage 2: *adverbe d’énoncé*

²⁰ English translation provided by van Reenen & Schøsler (1995).

At this stage, *or(es)* is a sentential adverb (i.e., scopes over the proposition) and evidences text-structuring properties by marking inter-clausal relations, such as temporal succession (i.e., *alors* ‘then’) (49), result (i.e., *donc* ‘thus’) (50) and adversativity (i.e., *pourtant* ‘yet’) (51). These temporal and non-temporal uses give important clues about the overall coherence of what is said.

- (49) *La bonne demoiselle, oyant de son filz la response, quoyque*
 the good woman, hear.GER of her son the answer however

malade et veille fust, en soubriant luy dist
 sick and old be.3SG.SUBJ in smile.GER to.him say.3SG.PRET

adieu. Or se passerent puis ung an, deux ans, tousjours
 goodbye ORES REFL pass.3SG.PAST then one year two years always

languissant.

languidly

The good lady, having heard her son’s response, however sick and old she may be, smiling told him goodbye. **And so then** one year, two years, very languidly, went by.’ (*C.N.N.*,²¹ c. 1456-1467, 535 [Loobuyck 2010: 14])

- (50) *Or te pri et quier et deman, Se tu*
 ORES you pray.1SG.PRES and seek.1SG.PRES and ask.1SG.PRES if you

sez, que tu me consoille...
 know.2SG.PRES that you me counsel.2SG.PRES

‘**Thus** I pray, desire/seek and ask thee, if you know, that you counsel me...’ (*Ch. Lyon* 364²² [Loobuyck 2010: 10])

- (51) *...Et or faites de moi dangier!*
 and ORES do.2PL.IMP of me danger
 And **yet** you cause me danger! (*Fl.u. Bl.*962.²³ [Loobuyck 2010: 10])

²¹ *C.N.N.* = *Les cent nouvelles nouvelles*

²² *Ch. Lyon* = *Chevalier au lyon*

²³ *Fl.u. Bl.* = *Flore und Blanceflor*

Stage 3: *adverbe d'énonciation*

At stage 3, *or(es)* may become a marker of confirmation and elaboration, (52). The enunciator confirms the belief “*kar ce ses tu bien que nus n'est mielres chevaliers de lui*” ‘because you know well that there is no better knight than he’ uttered previously by the co-enunciator. Additionally, *or(es)* links to obvious extra-linguistic information;²⁴ Meleagans is already well prepared to fight Lancelot, given that the co-enunciator has spoken extensively of Lancelot’s reputation in the past (“*m’aves assailli de parole et espoente de Lancelot*” [you have rigorously tormented me with words and sharp points about Lancelot]).

- (52) ...*kar ce ses tu bien que nus n' est mielres*
 because this know you well that no one NEG be.1SG.PRES better
- chevaliers de lui. Atant respond Meleagans:*
 knight of him to.this respond.3SG.PRES Melagans
- “*Sire, or m' est bien mestiers que je sache*
 sir ORES me be.3SG.PRES well useful that I know.1SG.SUBJ
- respondre, kar durement m' aves assailli de parole*
 repond.INF because very me have.2PL.PRES torment.PP of word
- et espoente de Lancelot...*”
 and points of Lancelot
 ...because you know well that there is no better knight than he (Lancelot). To this Meleagans responds: ‘Sir, **indeed/then** it is very useful that I know how to respond, because you have rigorously tormented me with words and sharp points about Lancelot. (*Lancelot*, ed. A. Micha, tome II, p. 61 [Ollier 1995: 19])

Additionally, *or(es)* can take on modal meanings because, being inherently linked to the speaker’s involvement, it may be used to introduce a subjective opinion or an evaluative

²⁴ See Mosegaard Hansen (1997) for a similar claim regarding *donc* ‘then’ in modern-day spoken French.

overlay, typically carrying overtones of impatience or urgency, in particular when used with an imperative, (53):²⁵

- (53) *Or* *vos* *traiez* *arrier!* ²⁶
 ORES you retreat.3PL.PRES back
 ‘Retreat **now!**’ (*Aliscans*, 1965 [Buridant 2000: 519])

Or(es) may also be classified as an “emergent particle” (Aijmer 2002: 58) in so far as the original temporal meaning “shines” through in any function. In (54), *or(es)* is ambiguous between a temporal adverb and a discourse marker since it marks both simultaneity with the utterance time and the speaker’s affirming attitude toward the proposition:

- (54) *Or* *est* *vray* *qu’* *apres plains* *et* *pleurs* *et*
 ORES be.3SG.PRES true that after regrets and tears and

angoisseux gemissemens (...), m’ *ouvrist* *plus que tous les*
 anguishing whines me open.3PL.PAST more than all the

commens *d’ Averroys* *sur* *Arristote.*
 comments of Averroe on Aristotle
 ‘**Now/Indeed** it is true that after regrets, tears and anguishing whines (...), you opened me/I have been opened up more than all of Averroes’ comments about Aristotle.’ (Villon, Test. R. H., 141-162, 29 [Loobuyck 2010: 15])

Ollier (1988, 1995) proposes that temporal and non-temporal uses can be disambiguated based on syntactic cues. She finds that in the pre-verbal slot, either at the head of the clause or after a coordinating conjunction (i.e., *et* ‘and’ and *mes* ‘but’), *or(es)* is primarily associated with text-structuring and discourse-pragmatic uses. In contrast, in post-verbal position, *or(es)* marks the time of the event. Librova (2008), on the other hand, prioritizes

²⁵ Librova’s study of the first branch of the *Roman du Renart* identifies a wide range of modal/discourse-pragmatic meanings, such as affirmation, surprise, irony, disdain, exhortation and dubativity.

²⁶ My English translation is based on Buridant’s Modern French translation: *Reculez donc!*

contextual clues given that non-temporal uses, such as confirmativity in (55), may also appear in the post-verbal slot.

- (55) *Tant par ies or de mal affaire...*²⁷
Much by be.2SG.PRES ORES of bad character
'You **truly** are so nefarious.' (*Roman du Renart* [Librova 2008: 11])

To account for the shift from temporal adverb to discourse marker (henceforth DM) Librova (2008) proposes that the change arises as a reflex of *or(es)*'s *contemporanéité inhérente* 'inherent simultaneity' (p. 13). Specifically, Librova claims that *or(es)*'s redundancy sets its development in motion:

Il est inutile de surmarquer l'époque présente, celle-ci étant par définition contemporaine de la profération de l'énoncé: cette redondance libère le morphème du domaine référentiel, pour lui permettre d'assumer des fonctions textuelles et pragmatiques. [It's useless to overly mark the present moment, this being by definition cotemporaneous with the utterance's declaration: this redundancy frees the morpheme from the referential domain, allowing it to assume textual and pragmatic functions] (Librova 2008: 13)

Other studies like Librova (2008) find that *or(es)* is linked to evaluative stance and is associated with overlays of affirmation, surprise, irony, disdain, exhortation and dubativity. Along with its contrastive nuances, *or(es)* serves to get attention similarly to the Old French marker *certes* 'certainly' (Nølke 2006). Ollier (2000a) finds that *or(es)* has a use as a deictic presentative or pointing device and glosses it as 'here' (*voici*) (56) or 'there' (*là*) (57):

²⁷ My English translation is based upon Librova's Modern French translation: *tu es décidément trop malfaisant*.

- (56) *Or me servez vos de mençonges!*²⁸
 ORES me serve.3PL.PRES you of lies
 ‘**Here/now** you let the lies flow.’ (*Érec et Énide*, vv. 2520-2535 [Ollier 2000a: 453, ex. 2])
- (57) *Or ai je dit oiseuse.*²⁹
 ORES have.1SG.PRES I say.PP nonsense
 ‘I have said nonsense **now/there**.’ (*Cligés*, vv. 1008-1019 [Ollier 2000a: 454, ex. 3])

Ollier (2000a) links *or(es)*’s pragmatic (non-temporal) uses to the notion of polyphony or in her terms *discours “interieur”* ‘“interior” discourse’ claiming that *or(es)*’s discourse-pragmatic uses are associated to speaker presuppositions. Crucially, she observes that there is a dialogue, implicit or explicit, between two interlocutors S_o (enunciator) and S'_o (co-enunciator) in which S_o , in uttering the state of affairs in which *or(es)* appears or E2, denies the presupposed state of affairs or E1 of S'_o , implying that the validity of the presupposition is in doubt.

Or(es)’s adversative value marks epistemic modal meanings in which a speaker indexes his/her strong commitment to the proposition, (58). In uttering the actual state of affairs (the proposition containing *or*) an enunciator S_o denies a presupposed state of affairs introduced by a co-enunciator S'_o .³⁰ Observe the conversational exchange in (58):

²⁸My English translation is based upon Ollier’s French translation: *Voici que vous me débitez des mensonges!*

²⁹ My English translation based on Ollier’s Modern French translation: *J’ai dit là une sotise*.

³⁰ Note that one speaker may assume both enunciator roles.

- (58) (S'°) *Et si manjai, jo vos afi, des. III.*
 and then eat.1SG.PAST I you assure.1SG.PRES of.the three
- patez un et demi, et do vin bui tant con je*
 pates one and half and some wine drink.1SG.PAST as much as I
- vos, de ce ne fis je pas que fos.*
 want.1SG.PRES of this NEG do/make.1SG.PAST I NEG that fool
- (S°)- *Par mon chief, dit li Orgoilleus, or as*
 by my head, say.3SG.PRES the Proud ORES have.2SG.PRES
- tu dit que oltrageus, qant cest chose a regeie. Or*
 you say.PP that outrage when this thing have.3SG.PRES profess.PP ORES
- as tu bien mort deservie, qant tu en iés*
 have.2SG.PRES you well die.PP deserve.PP when you it be.2SG.PRES

*verais confés.*³¹

truly confess.PP

‘...and then I ate, I assure you, one and a half of the three pates, and I drank as much wine as I wanted, I didn’t make such a fool of myself from this.

Upon my head, said the Proud, **indeed** you have said such outrageousness, given that one has professed this, **indeed** you have well death deserved, given that you have/are truly confessed.’ (*Le Conte du Graal*, vv. 3833-3851 [Ollier 2000a: 457, ex. 11])

The co-enunciator (S'°), Perceval, assumes that his behavior was appropriate for the occasion at which he was eating and drinking by uttering *ne fis je pas que fos* ‘I didn’t act like an idiot’. Upon hearing this, the enunciator (S°) *li Orgoilleus* refutes Perceval’s belief, presupposing the contrary, that he acted like a total idiot, in uttering: *Or as tu dit que oltrageus* ‘Indeed you have said outrageous things’ and *Or as tu bien mort deservie*

³¹ My English translation is based upon Ollier’s Modern French translation : *Mais je lui ai mangé, j’en conviens, un pâté et demi sur les trois, et j’ai bu du vin tant que j’ai voulu. Là-dessus, je n’ai pas agi comme un sot ! –Sur ma tête, dit l’Orgueilleux, c’est merveille de t’entendre confesser ainsi la chose ! Tu as donc bien mérité la mort, après cette pleine et entière confession!*

‘Indeed you have well/truly deserved death’. This utterance casts doubt on Perceval’s belief that his behavior is not deserving of punishment.

In sum, the semantic-pragmatic change observed for *or(es)* conforms to the well-attested trajectory of semantic change in (38), propositional > textual > interpersonal/expressive; *or(es)*’s temporal (i.e. propositional) sense is back-grounded in favor of a discourse-structuring (i.e., interpersonal/expressive) use as it moves out of clause-internal position to clause-initial position. In this latter position, *or(es)*’s primary function is to aid the speaker in constructing coherent discourse. Thus, *or(es)* has undergone a grammaticalization process in which it acquires more abstract uses as it develops from a temporal adverb into a DM, passing through an intermediate stage as a sentential adverb (i.e., textual use).

While it is clear that *or(es)* developed into a DM as early as Old French, the clause-internal *or(es)*, which develops into the IL, is, in my opinion, representative of another type of discourse-pragmatic marker known in the literature as a modal particle. By modal particle (henceforth MP) I mean a non-inflecting linguistic element that gives information about the speaker’s attitudes/beliefs by pointing to the pragmatic context. For instance, in (59) we see that in German, the MP *denn* ‘then’ points to the speaker’s belief that the person referred to will not come:

- (59) *Kommt er denn?*
Comes he then
‘Will he come after all?’...(Abraham 1991b: 333)

Since we only find IL variants in clause-internal position, I posit that *or(es)* with respect to the IL has developed into a MP rather than a DM given that the former is restricted to a specific distributional position (i.e., clause-internal position) whereas the latter is mainly

restricted to clause-initial position.³² Like DMs, MPs are also known to have developed via a process of grammaticalization over three successive stages (Diewald, Kresic, & Smirnova 2009; Diewald 2011), shown in (60):

(60) Diachronic stages of MP development (Diewald 2011: 381)

- a) Stage (i) represents the source: here we have original particles or members of other word classes with demonstrative or relational meaning.
- b) Stage (ii) marks a relation between two textually expressed events/instances.
- c) Stage (iii) shows the fully developed grammatical markers indicating the noninitial state of an utterance.

Rooted in Traugott's (1989) model of semantic-pragmatic change,³³ these diachronic stages follow the cross-linguistic tendency in (38), propositional > textual > interpersonal/expressive, which can easily be illustrated by the grammaticalization of German *eben* (Abraham 1991b; Diewald & Ferraresi 2008). In stage (i), the original source meaning of *eben* is a local spatial meaning equivalent to English 'even, smooth, flat'. In stage (ii), the locative meaning acquires a scalar meaning of 'exactly, precisely'. At stage (iii), *eben* transitions from the scalar meaning to an MP that signifies iteration in so far as it connects the utterance to a previously held belief (i.e., a pragmatically given unit). Thus, the MP-marked sentence is non-initial because it refers back to a previously held assumption present in the communicative context, indicated in parentheses:³⁴

³² There is a debate in the literature as to whether DMs and MPs belong to the same or to a separate category. For more information on the categorization of DMs and MPs see Degand, Cornillie, & Pietrandrea (2013) and references therein.

³³ Traugott's (1989) model of semantic-pragmatic change is further developed in Traugott & Dasher (2002).

³⁴ For more details concerning the development of German *eben* see Abraham (1991b) and Diewald & Ferraresi (2008).

Stage (i) (Early New High German)

- (61) *Es ist aber dise Statt Tripolis zimlich*
 it be.3SG.PRES however this.NOM.SG city.NOM.SG Tripolis quite
- groß/[...]/vnd ligt inn ainer lustigen gegne/*
 big and lie.3SG.PRES in a.DAT.SG pleasant.DAT.SG area.DAT.SG
- an den vorbergen des hohen Gebürges*
 at the.DAT.PL foothill.DAT.PL of.the high.GEN.SG mountain.range.GEN.SG
- Libani, die gegen dem M[oe]hr gar eben.*
 Lebanon which towards the.DAT.SG sea.DAT.SG rather eben.ADJ
 ‘The city of Tripolis, however, is quite big and is situated in a pleasant area at the foot-hills of the high mountain range of the Lebanon, which is rather **flat** towards the sea.’ (16th c., B³⁵ 125, 135 [Diewald & Ferraresi 2008: 98-99])

Stage (ii) (New High German)

- (62) *[. . .], dass ihn seine Gemuethsunruhe eben so*
 that him his.NOM.SG restlessness.NOM.SG eben.ADV so
- stark quaelte, als die Krankheit*
 much.ADV plague.3SG.PAST as the.NOM.SG illness.NOM.SG
 ‘that his restlessness plagued him **just** as much as his illness’ (18th c., BA³⁶
 Christian Fürchtegott Gellert 995 [Diewald & Ferraresi 2008: 86])

Stage (iii) (German)

- (63) *Seine Gemuethsunruhe quält ihn eben.*
 his.NOM.sg restlessness.NOM.SG plague.3SG.PRES him eben.PRT
 ‘His restlessness plagues him (I iterate the proposition which has been present in the communicative context before).’ (Diewald & Ferraresi 2008: 86)

³⁵ B = *Bonner Frühneuhochdeutsches Korpus*: (<http://www.ikp.uni-bonn.de/dt/forsch/fnhd/>)

³⁶ BA = *Bibliotheca Augustana*: (<http://www.fh-augsburg.de/~harsch/augustana.html>)

The shift from adjectival ‘even, smooth, flat’ to scalar ‘just’ illustrates the change from propositional or more basic function to a textual connective function in so far as *eben* in the scalar function refers to a comparison between two textually present items. The shift from scalar ‘just’ to an iterative MP is illustrative of the change from textual/connective to expressive since the modal meaning indexes the speaker’s attitude/belief. In other words, what is deemed as iterative is subjective to the speaker. What is crucial is that the development of MPs is shown to be unidirectional from a more lexical status towards a more grammatical status. Bearing in mind the cross-linguistic development of MPs, the present study attempts to relate the development of the IL in Lorrain, with special attention to *or(es)*, to an analogous grammaticalization process. In doing so, I will revisit the functions of the IL from (Chapter 5) and then relate these functions to semantic-pragmatic changes as well as to morphosyntactic changes that justifies the analysis in terms of grammaticalization (Chapter 6).

2.6 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have provided a general overview of grammaticalization through the discussion of some canonical instances of grammaticalization involving verbal constructions. I included a discussion of the mechanisms of semantic change - metaphor and metonymy - the latter of which plays a crucial role in the development of discourse markers. I also discussed some controversial issues associated with grammaticalization theory. Next, I considered in more detail the grammaticalization of *or(es)* into a DM. Past studies show that the lexical item began to develop more abstract uses in Old French as it moved into clause-initial position. Additionally, the grammaticalization pathway posited

by Traugott (1982) captures the development of MPs as evidenced by the development of *eben* in German. As we will see, the post-verbal particle, formerly *or(es)*, of the IL has also undergone an analogous grammaticalization process wherein it developed into an MP as it became more and more associated with the past imperfect verb. Before I begin my analysis, I will first introduce more background information on the IL in terms of its geographic distribution (Chapter 3) and its description as presented in previous studies such as grammars and monographs (Chapter 4).

CHAPTER 3

ON THE GEOGRAPHIC DISTRIBUTION OF THE *IMPARFAIT* *LORRAIN*

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I first give a brief introduction to the region of Lorraine and the surrounding areas in which the variety of Lorrain is spoken (section 3.2). Since much of what is known about the IL is from atlases, I review and compare the form's geographic distribution across three different linguistic atlases in section 3.3. I then offer a summary of the chapter in section 3.4. This chapter is important for introducing the IL variants from a geographic perspective and can be useful for future dialectology studies on the IL and on Lorrain in general.

3.2 An introduction to the Lorraine region and the Lorrain dialects

The region of Lorraine, situated in eastern France (see Figure 1) serves as a major crossroads between three French regions: Alsace, Champagne, and Franche-Comté, as well as three countries: Germany, Luxembourg, and Belgium.



Figure 1: The region of Lorraine (from *Encyclopædia Britannica*, www.britannica.com/place/Lorraine-region-France?overlay=true&assemblyId=156820)

It is comprised of four departments: Meurthe-et-Moselle, Meuse, Moselle, and Vosges, the names of which are indicated in white in the map, shown in Figure 2.



Figure 2: Administrative map of Lorraine (Humbert & Taveneaux n.d., <http://www.universalis.fr/media/AT101503/0/>)

Before the Romans, Lorraine was a patchwork of various Gaulish (i.e., Celtic) tribes, most notably the Treveri in the North, the Mediomatrici in the center and the Leuci in the south (Parisse 1978). In 58 AD, the Latin-speaking Romans intervened in Gaul (now France) to push back Germanic invaders, eventually leading to Rome's complete conquest over Gaul (Parisse 1978). With the mixing of Latin, the dominant language, and

Celtic over several hundreds of years, a new vernacular emerged, which split up into what are today's Romance languages. The variety spoken in Gaul was known as Gallo-Romance. Although the administrative power of the Roman Empire collapsed, Gallo-Romance survived, morphing into Old French, itself a collection of dialects. Lorrain, a *langue d'oïl*, can be traced back to one of the dialects of Old French spoken in Lorraine.

Lorraine was, for a longtime, a disputed region between France and Germany due to its strategic geographical position between the two empires (Hopkin 2003). Parts of Lorraine even passed hands between France and Germany several times.³⁷ It was only in the eighteenth century, after the Revolution, that the region was organized into four departments, which are still intact. Linguistically, there exists a divide between Germanic and Romance language groups, a split dating back to the Holy Roman Empire. Romance speakers inhabit the majority of the Lorraine territory, whereas German speakers reside primarily in north-eastern Lorraine in the department of Moselle, speaking a variety of German known as Francique.

The eponymous Romance variety of Lorrain spans several borders, encompassing the previously mentioned regions as well as two regions of Alsace (Bas-Rhin and Haut-Rhin), one region of Champagne/Ardenne (Haute-Marne) and a small area of Belgium near the Lorraine border.³⁸ Lorrain is comprised of several sub-varieties. According to the website *Project Babel* (<http://projetbabel.org>), the *Atlas linguistique de la Lorraine romane* has identified eighteen of them, represented in Figure 3.

³⁷ Territorial exchanges took place in 1825, 1830 and 1834 (Hopkin 2003). North-eastern Lorraine was incorporated into the German empire in 1871.

³⁸ The variety of Lorrain spoken in Belgium is known as Gaumais and is not pictured in Figure 3.

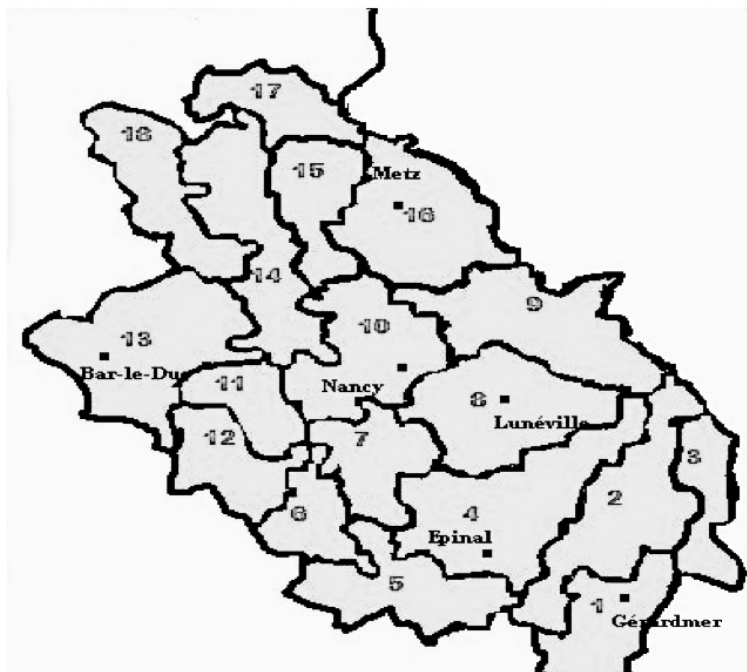


Figure 3: Sub-varieties of Lorraine (Curin n.d., <http://projetbabel.org/vosgien/pluralitelorraine.htm>)

The eighteen sub-varieties are grouped with respect to one of the four major Lorraine varieties (i.e., Meurthois, Meusien, Mosellan and Vosgien). Table 3 lists each sub-variety and its corresponding number given in Figure 3.

Table 3: Sub-varieties of Lorrain

Major variety	Sub-variety
Meurthois	Sainthois (7), Vermois-lunévillois (8), Parlers des la Haye (10)
Meusien	Parlers de Void-Vaucouleurs (11), Barrois (13), Parler de la Woëvre (14), Messin (16), Parlers du Pays-Haut (17), Verdunois (18)
Mosellan	Parlers de la Seille & des étangs (9), Parlers de Jarnisy (15)
Vosgien	Vosgien (Hautes-Vosges) (1), Vosgien de la montagne (2), Vosgien des vallées alsaciennes (3), Vosgien (Plaine sous-vosgienne) (4), Vosgien de la Vôge (5), Châtenois (6), Parlers de Neufchâteau (12)

Today Lorrain is a severely endangered language (Moseley 2010); the number of current speakers is unknown.³⁹ The language may be spoken by the older generation (i.e., grandparents) but not by the parent generation. Although the parent generation understands Lorrain, they do not use it with the younger generation. Lorrain's obsolescence is attributed to several factors among which: a strong standardization movement in France during the nineteenth century and perhaps an influx of immigrants from surrounding regions as a result of a large industrialization movement in Lorraine during the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. Over the years, grammarians and dialectologists have sought to preserve and document the language. Jean Lanher (b. 1924 -), a prolific researcher and Lorraine native, dedicated much of his research to the study of Lorrain and undertook the creation of the *Atlas linguistique et ethnographique de la Lorrain romane* in the mid-twentieth century.

³⁹ Lodge (1993) sums up the present state of dialects in France by stating that, "...surviving (...) regional languages are all located in geographically peripheral areas, and they exist in only a diglossic situation with regard to the standard language. It is equally clear that in most cases their existence is now very precarious."

Despite the current state of the language, there are concerted efforts to maintain the cultural heritage connected to the language. *Patoisants* ‘dialect speakers’ can come together through various outlets and gatherings. For instance, the association *Lâ Patoisant dâ Tro R’Vères* of Girmont-Val-d’Ajol in Vosges organized a mass in *patois* ‘dialect’ in 2011. Social media and the internet have also played an active role in recent years. A Facebook page has been created for heritage speakers and those who would like to learn about the Lorrain language culture (<https://www.facebook.com/Lorrain-langue-romane-306308053082/?fref=ts>). Educational materials such as grammar lessons and historical information on Vosgien, a major sub-variety of Lorrain, are featured on the web page Project Babel (<http://projetbabel.org/>). Although the sociolinguistic landscape and the current state of Lorrain is not the main focus of the current study, it is an interesting avenue for further research.

3.3 On the geographic distribution of the *imparfait lorrain*

As mentioned earlier, in his monograph on the Lorrain dialect, Adam (1881) notes ten orthographic variants of the IL, given in (2) and reproduced in (64) for convenience.

(64) Variants of the IL (Adam 1881: 173)

- a. *-or, -ore, -ôr, -aur*
- b. *-zor, -sor*
- c. *-zo, -zô, -zau*
- d. *-zeur, -seur*
- e. *-zeu*
- f. *-zar, -sar*
- g. *-za, -sa*
- h. *-zooue*
- i. *-tor, -tore, -taur, -taure*
- j. *-to*

There are three main differences amongst the orthographic variants listed in (64): (i) the presence or absence of an initial consonant, (ii) the vowel and (iii) the presence or absence of a final [r], written as both *r* or *re*. The extent to which these different written representations correspond to different sounds remains unclear but it seems that orthographic variation is a manifestation of the attempts to reflect pronunciation. The presence or absence of an initial consonant appears to be the most relevant difference in so far as some of these variants are attested in specific geographic areas/varieties.

The geographic distribution of these IL variants has been primarily documented in three linguistic atlases - the *Atlas linguistique de la France* (ALF) (Gilliéron & Edmont 1902), the *Atlas linguistique des Vosges méridionales* (ALVM) (Bloch 1917) and the *Atlas linguistique et ethnographique de la Lorraine romane* (ALLR) (Lanher, Laitize, & Richard 1979). From these past studies, we know that the variants vary spatially across the region of Lorraine; they are found mainly in central and southern areas as well as into peripheral areas in the East and West. While it is unclear whether the variants of the IL emerged in the most northern parts of Lorraine, it is attested in the neighboring region of Alsace, in the Bas-Rhin and Haut-Rhin departments.

For reasons of space, I will not present the details of every map from each atlas attesting the IL, but I will present a subset of maps that I consider to be comparable. The selection of the subset of maps was based on three major criteria: First, the number of maps was limited to verbs found in all three linguistic atlases that evidenced a form of the IL. These verbs were the *imparfait* of *avoir* ‘have’, *être* ‘be’ and *pouvoir* ‘can, be able’. Second, the maps of the verbs were limited to the singular paradigm because it was found to be a more robust/reliable indicator of the IL form. Third, if there were two maps of the same verb form, I chose the map that attested a greater quantity of IL forms. For example, maps 510 and 511 of the ALF both attested the past imperfective form of *être* ‘be’ in the third person singular (i.e., *était*), but I chose to include map 510 over map 511 because the former attested a greater quantity of the IL than the latter. In sum, twelve maps were chosen to chart the distribution of the IL – four maps from the ALF, four maps from the ALVM and four maps from the ALLR. One of the four ALLR maps is an entire map dedicated to the IL. I am analyzing the maps from a synchronic perspective to give a better understanding of the overall geographic distribution of the IL in Lorraine. Although a diachronic perspective would be interesting, it is outside the scope of the present study. As for the presentation of the maps, they are grouped according to chronological order. The maps from the ALF are the starting point as they are the first documented geographic representations of the IL. Next, I discuss the maps from the ALVM, and, lastly, I discuss the maps of the IL from the ALLR. For all maps, the legend is as follows: *-or* is indicated by a red circle, *-zor* by a blue circle, *-zoer* by a dotted blue circle, *-zo* by a blue square, *-zoe* by a dotted blue square, *-zar* by a green circle, *-za* by a green square, *-tor* by a black circle, *-to* by a dotted black square, *-ta* by a black square.

3.3.1 *ATLAS LINGUISTIQUE DE LA FRANCE*

The *Atlas linguistique de la France* (ALF) (Gilliéron & Edmont 1902) is a collection of maps documenting French dialects at the turn of the twentieth century at hundreds of locales across France. The data for the atlas was collected between 1897 and 1901 via traditional methods (i.e., a questionnaire and hand-written transcriptions). The majority of informants selected were primarily older, rural inhabitants for each point investigated.

The maps contained in the atlas show all points investigated, indicated by a number. Each point corresponds to a specific locale and is accompanied by the phonetic transcription of the informant's response. Three departments of Lorraine are included in the map: Meuse, Meurthe-et-Moselle (abbreviated as Meurthe-et-M) and Vosges. Also pictured on the map are the departments of Haute-Marne (abbreviated as H.-Marne) in the Champagne-Ardenne Region and Haute-Saone (abbreviated as H.-Soane) in the Franche-Comté region. No data is recorded on the map for the department of Moselle, which at the time of the investigation belonged to Germany under the territory of Alsace-Lorraine (1871-1918).

In the ALF, I am only looking at four of seventeen maps⁴⁰ that attest the IL (Map 94, Map 95, Map 510 and Map 1084). It is important to note that Gilliéron & Edmont (1902) do not explicitly reference the IL; I identified the IL variants through consultation with grammars, monographs and ALLR map 1060. Map 1 (Map 94) shows that the IL is found at nine points across the departments of Meuse (point 153), Meurthe-et-Moselle (points 150, 160 and 162) and Vosges (points 59, 67, 68, 86, 87).

⁴⁰ The maps of the IL in the ALF are: Maps 94-95, 143, 155, 312, 332, 359, 400-401, 510-511, 513, 536, 1084, 1146, 1223, 1405. I thank Yves Charles Morin for drawing my attention to many of these maps.

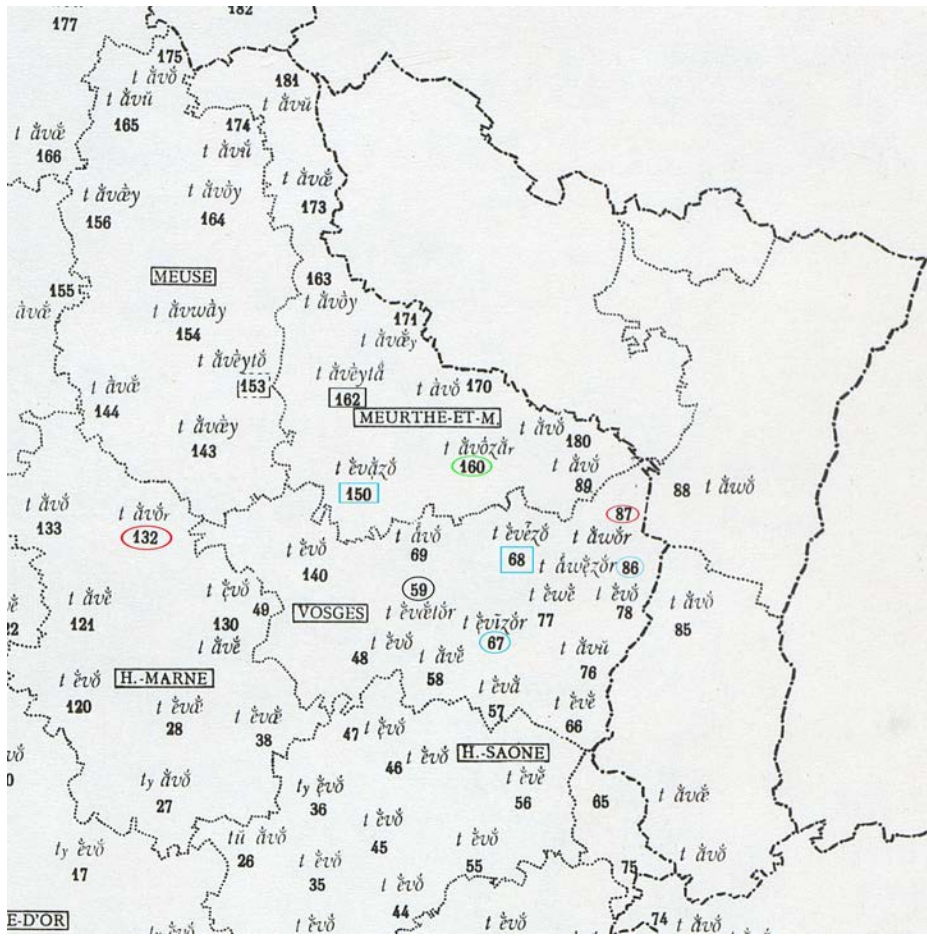


Figure 4: Map 1 (ALF 94)⁴¹ *tu avais* ‘you had’

Beginning with the department of Meuse, the only form of the IL attested is the orthographic variant *-to* at point 153 in the southern area. In Meurthe-et-Moselle, there are three forms of the IL attested: *-zo* at point 150, *-zar* at point 160 and *-ta* at point 162 in central and southern areas. We find more variants of the IL in the department of Vosges. The orthographic variant *-tor* is found at point 59 in east-central Vosges while the variant *-zor* is found in two locales, point 67 in central Vosges and 86 in northwestern Vosges.

⁴¹ The localities where the IL is found on Map 1 are as follows: 59 – Racécourt; 67 – Arches; 68 – Romont; 86 - Sainte-Marguerite; 87 – La Petite-Raon; 150 - Crepey; 153 – Ville-Issey; 160 – Einvaux; 162 - Sexey-au-bois.

The variant *-zo* is found in the northern Vosges at point 68 and the variant *-or* is found at point 87 in central Vosges. Lastly, the variant *-or* is found in Haute Marne in the region of Champagne at point 132.

Map 2 (ALF 95) is very similar to Map 1, given that it is the third person singular of the same paradigm of the verb *avoir* ‘have’ in the indicative imperfect. There are seven points that attest six variants of the IL, spanning four departments.

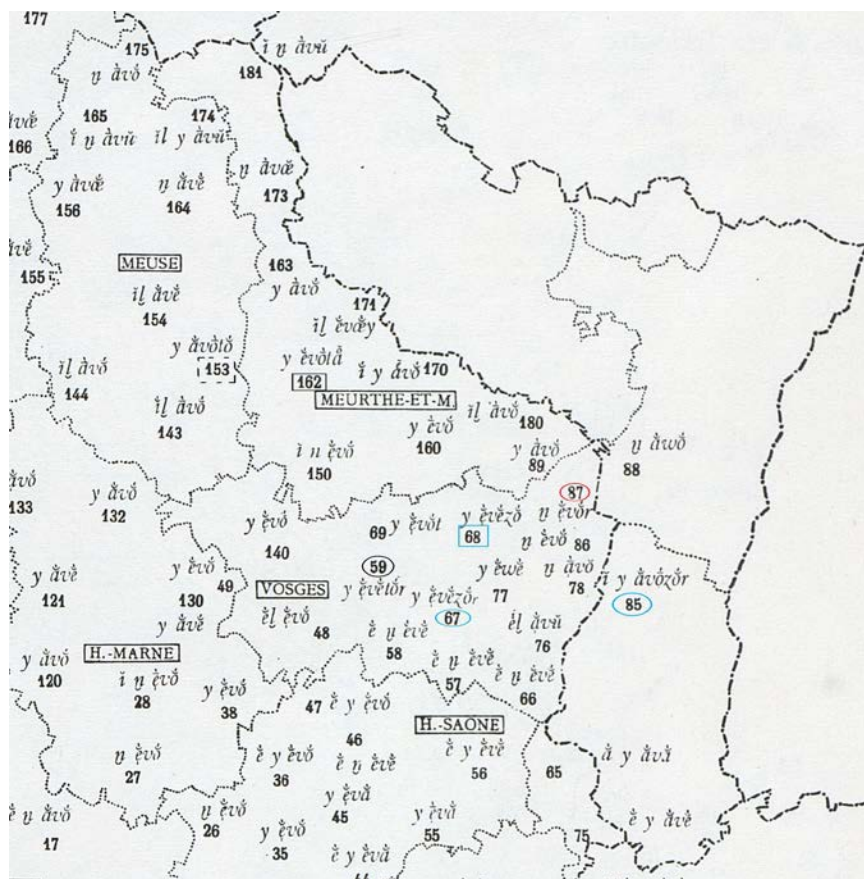


Figure 5: Map 2 (ALF 95) ⁴² *il y avait* ‘there was’

⁴² The locales where the IL is found on Map 2 are as follows: 59 – Racécourt; 67 – Arches; 68 – Romont; 85 – La Poutroye; 87 – La Petite-Raon; 153 – Ville-Issey; 162 – Sexey-au-bois.

The variant *-to* is attested at point 153 in Meuse whereas the variant *-ta* is attested at point 162 in Meurthe-et-Moselle. In the department of Vosges, there are four localities that evidence four different orthographic variants of the IL: *-tor* at point 59; *-zor* at point 67; *-zo* at point 68 and *-or* at point 87. Interestingly, Map 2 differs from Map 1 in that the former attests the variant *-zor* at point 85 in the department of Haut-Rhin in the region of Alsace. Moreover, points 86 in Vosges and 160 in Meurthe-et-Moselle do not attest an IL form but rather the inherited imperfect form (e.g., *evo*)

Map 3 (ALF 510) shows the third person singular form of the past imperfect verb *être* ‘be’. There are ten attestations of the IL that span four different departments (Meuse, Meurthe-et-Moselle, Vosges and Haut-Rhin) and two different regions (Lorraine and Alsace).

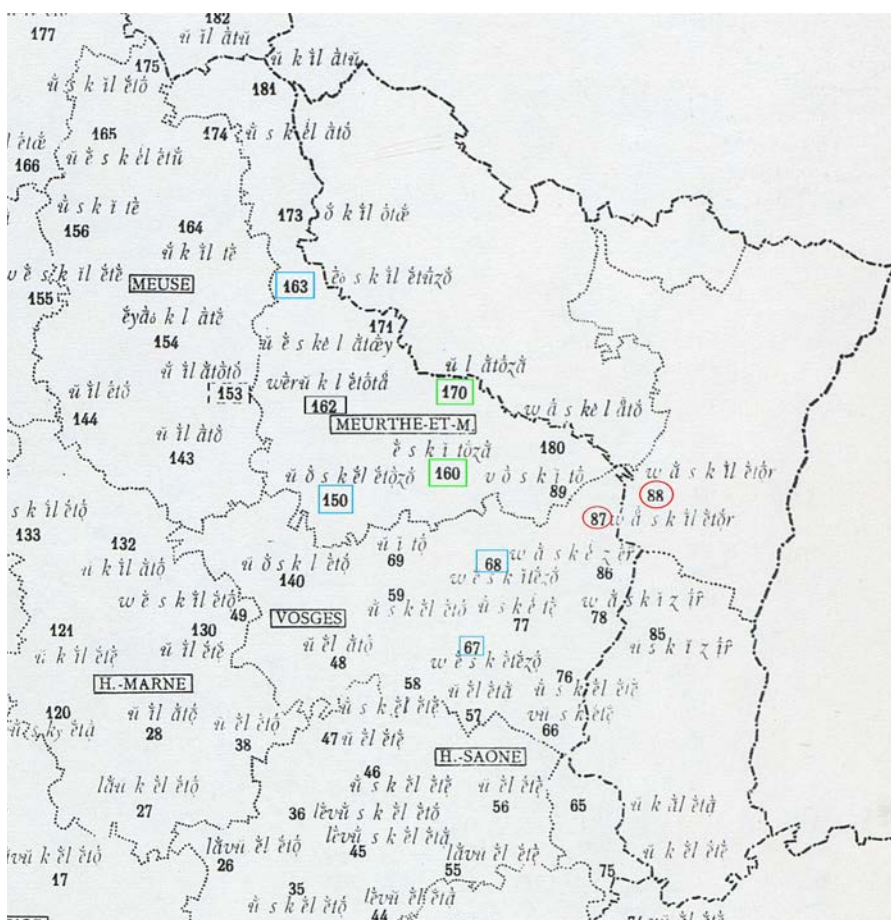


Figure 6: Map 3 (ALF 510)⁴³ où il était ‘where he/it was’

The orthographic variants of the IL are as follows: -zo at points 67-68 (Vosges), 150 and 163 (Meurthe-et-Moselle); the variant -or shows up at points 87 (Vosges) and 88 (Bas-Rhin); the variant -to is only found at point 153 (Meuse) while the variant -ta is located at point 162 (Meurthe-et-Moselle); -za is found in two locations at points 160 and 170 (Meurthe-et-Moselle).

Map 4 (ALF 1084) shows the third person singular form of the past imperfect verb *pouvoir* ‘be able’. On this map, we see that there are eight attestations of the IL in

⁴³ The localities where the IL is found on Map 3 are as follows: 67 – Arches; 68 – Romont; 87 – La Petite-Raon; 88 – La Broque; 150 – Crepey; 153 – Ville-Issey; 160 – Einvaux; 162 – Sexey-au-bois; 163 – Jaulny; 170 – Moncel-sur-Seille.

[illegible]

The IL variant *-zo* is found at points 68 and 86 while the variant *-zor* is only found at point 85. The variant *-or* is attested at points 87 and 88, the variant *-to* is attested at point 153, the variant *-ta* is at point 162, and lastly, the variant *-za* shows up at point 170.

65

Table 4: ALF Maps 94, 95, 510 and 1084

Department (Region)	Map 94 (locale)	Map 95 (locale)	Map 510 (locale)	Map 1084 (locale)
Vosges (Lorraine)	-or (87) -zor (67, 86) -zo (68) -tor (59)	-or (87) -zor (67) -zo (68) -tor (59)	-or (87) -zo (67, 68)	-or (87) -zo (68, 86)
Meurthe-et-Moselle (Lorraine)	-zar (160) -zo (150) -ta (162)	 -ta (162)	-zo (150, 163) -za (160, 170) -ta (162)	-za (170) -ta (162)
Meuse (Lorraine)	-to (153)	-to (153)	-to (153)	-to (153)
Haut Rhin (Alsace)		-zor (85)		-zor (85)
Bas Rhin (Alsace)			-or (88)	-or (88)
Haute Marne (Champagne)	-or (132)			

3.3.2 *ATLAS LINGUISTIQUE DES VOSGES MERIODONALES*

Like the ALF, the *Atlas linguistique des Vosges méridionales* (ALVM) (Bloch 1917) is also a collection of linguistic maps, but they differ in that the ALVM only concerns the most southern area of the department of Vosges in Lorraine. Oscar Bloch undertook the investigation during 1904-1905, 1908 and 1913. He used the same data collection methods for the creation of the ALVM as those used for the ALF. In fact, he adopted Gillieron's questionnaire as well as added new questions. His informants, who were primarily rural inhabitants aged between 50 and 70 years and were born in the same

locale under investigation, were selected *par hasard* ‘by chance’ as he passed from one locale to the next. The informants’ responses were hand-recorded transcriptions.

The ALVM maps, which are hand-drawn, show the locale, indicated by a number, and the phonetic transcription of the elicited data. Pictured on the maps are the departments of Vosges (Lorraine) and Haute-Saone (Franche-Comté), the neighboring region of Alsace and two rivers Moselotte and Moselle. The frontiers between Franche-Comté, Lorraine and Alsace and the two rivers are all represented as continuous dark lines (—) whereas the dotted lines (----) represent isoglosses. Furthermore, Bloch has indicated two points on the map that correspond to points recorded in the ALF, point 57 and 66. While the area that is delimited by the ALVM is very small in comparison to that of the ALF, it is still important to examine since it is one of the most comprehensive geographic surveys representing data of the IL.

In the ALVM, I am looking at four of twelve maps that attest the IL.⁴⁴ Because the ALVM does not explicitly label the “IL” as such, I identified the variants on the maps in consultation with grammars, monographs and map 1060 of the ALLR. On the first map, Map 5, the IL variants *-zor* and *-zoe* are found at points 16 and 21, respectively for the verb *avoir* ‘have’ in the second person singular of the indicative imperfect.

⁴⁴ The twelve maps that attest the IL are: maps 70-71, maps 103, map 108, map 203, map 233, map 325, maps 333, map 609, map 645, map 687 and map 705

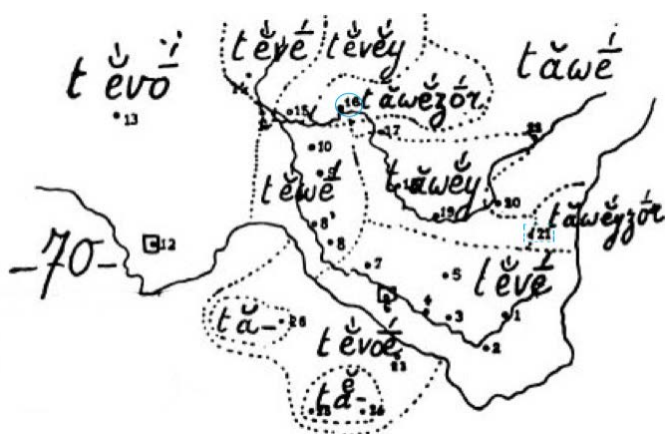


Figure 8: Map 5 (ALVM 70)⁴⁵ *tu avais* ‘you had’

Map 6 (ALVM 71) shows the variant *-zor* at point 9 for the third person singular.

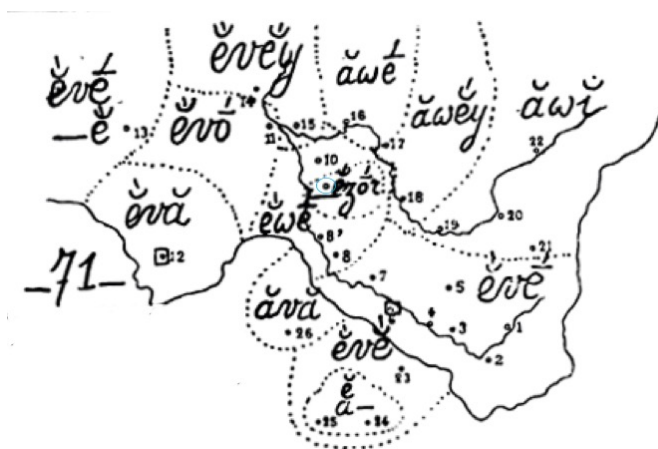


Figure 9: Map 6 (ALVM 71)⁴⁶ *il y avait* ‘there was’

Map 7 (ALVM 325) gives the variant *-or* at point 2 for the third person singular past imperfect form of the verb *être* ‘be’.

⁴⁵ The localities where the IL is found on Map 5 are as follows: 16 - St. Amé and 21 - Ventron.

⁴⁶ Point 9 corresponds to the city of Ventron.

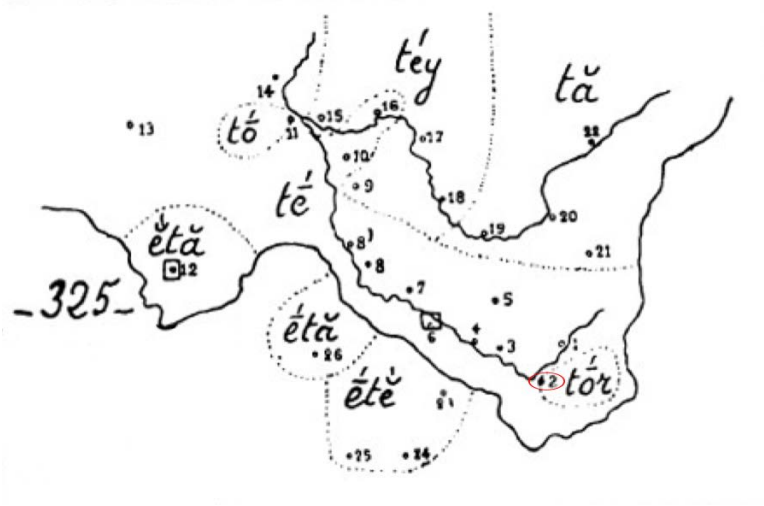


Figure 10: Map 7 (ALVM 325)⁴⁷ *Si c'était bien cuit* 'if it were/had been well done'

The last map, Map 8 (ALVM 609), gives two variants of the IL at four different points for the third person singular form of the verb *pouvoir* 'be able' in the past imperfect. The orthographic variant *-or* shows up at points 2 and 21 while *-zor* is given at points 10 and 20.

⁴⁷ Point 2 corresponds to the city of Saint-Maurice-sur-Moselle.

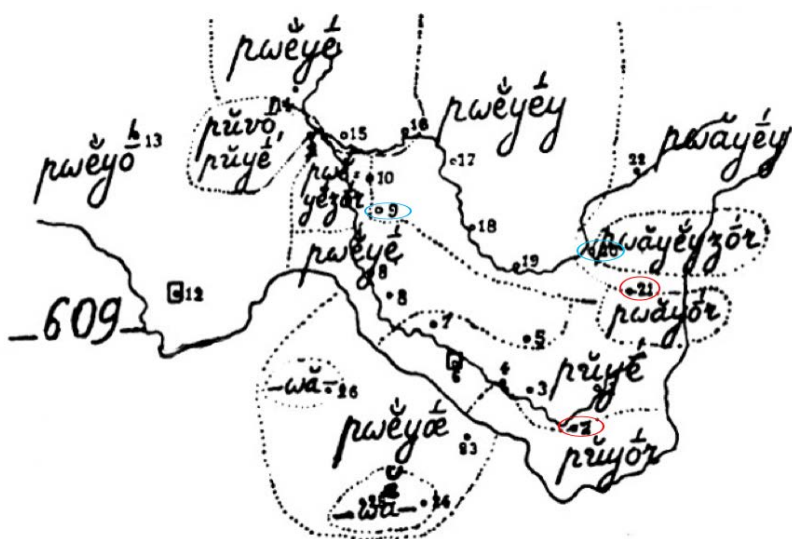


Figure 11: Map 8 (ALVM 609)⁴⁸ *Je ne pouvais ni avancer ni reculer* ‘I couldn’t go forward or backward’

The four ALVM maps are summarized in Table 5.

Table 5: ALVM Maps 70, 71, 325 and 609

Department (Region)	Map 70 (locale)	Map 71 (locale)	Map 325 (locale)	Map 609 (locale)
Vosges (Lorraine)	-zor (16) -zoe (21)	-zor (9)	-or (2)	-or (2, 21) -zor (10, 20)

3.3.3 ATLAS LINGUISTIQUE ET ETHNOGRAPHIQUE DE LA LORRAINE ROMANE

The *Atlas linguistique et ethnographique de la Lorraine romane* (ALLR) is the most up-to-date linguistic atlas exclusively focused on the region of Lorraine; it is comprised of hundreds of linguistic maps of the Lorrain dialect. In contrast to its two predecessors, the

⁴⁸ Point 2 corresponds to the city of Saint-Maurice-sur-Moselle, point 10 to Dommartin, point 20 to Cornimont and point 21 to Ventron.

ALLR used a mix of traditional (e.g., use of questionnaire and hand-written transcriptions) and contemporary (e.g., tape recorder) data collection methods. Specifically, the investigators used a double-transcription method – the first transcription took place on-site during the interview and was then verified a second time at a dialectology institute. The investigation was carried out over a five-year period between 1960 and 1965. Several fieldworkers interviewed informants, who were selected primarily on the basis of age with a preference for older speakers who still spoke the dialect.

Each point on the maps represents a locale where informants were interviewed. The dashed line with intervening x (-x-x-) represents boundaries between the departments in France while the dashed line (---) represents the linguistic boundary between French-speaking Lorraine and German-speaking Lorraine in the department of Moselle. The x-line (xxx) represents the boundary between France and Luxembourg. The data from the ALLR only includes the French-speaking area of Moselle. All four departments of Lorraine, Meuse, Meurthe-et-Moselle, Vosges and (French-speaking) Moselle are depicted on the maps. Also pictured are two departments in Alsace, Bas-Rhin and Haut-Rhin, in the south-east corner as well as points located in the department of Haute-Marne in Champagne-Ardenne region to the east of Lorraine.

There are seven maps that attest the IL forms, but I will only discuss three (maps 1054, 1052 and 156) in relation to the ALF and the ALVM.⁴⁹ Map 9 (ALLR 1054) gives the first, second and third person indicative past imperfect of the verb *avoir* ‘have’.

⁴⁹ The seven maps attesting the IL form in the ALLR are 1052-1056 and 1058-1059.



Figure 12: Map 9 (ALLR 1054)⁵⁰ *j' avais; tu avais; il avait* 'I had; you had; he/it had'

On this map, we see the orthographic variant *-or* in three departments in Lorraine. In Meurthe-et-Moselle, the *IL* is found at points 84, 93 and 98-99 in Vosges at points 108-109 and in Moselle at points 95-96.

⁵⁰ Point 84 corresponds to the city of Vallois, point 93 to Reherrey, point 95 to Neufmoulins, point 96 to Saint-Quirin, point 98 to Angomont and point 99 Vacqueville.

Map 10 (ALLR 1052) charts the first, second and third person singular indicative of the past imperfective verb *être* ‘be’.



Figure 13: Map 10 (ALLR 1052)⁵¹ *j'etais, tu etais, il etait* ‘I was, you were, he/it was’

The areas attesting the use of the IL are located in three departments of Lorraine in Meurthe-et-Moselle at points 84, 93 and 99, in Vosges at points 108-109 and in Moselle at points 95-96, and in one department of Alsace in Bas-Rhin at point 111.

⁵¹ Point 84 corresponds to Vallois, point 93 to Reherrey, point 95 to Neufmoulins, point 96 to Saint-Quirin and point 99 to Vacqueville.

In Map 11 (ALLR 1056) we find the *-or* variant in two departments, Meurthe-et-Moselle and Vosges for the third, person and third singular indicative past imperfect form of the verb *pouvoir* ‘be able’.



Figure 14: Map 11 (ALLR 1056)⁵² *si je pouvais; tu pouvais; il pouvait* ‘if I could, you could, he/it could’

⁵² Point 84 corresponds to Vallois, point 94 to Harbouey and point 98 to Angomont.

In Meurthe-et-Moselle, the *-or* variant shows up at points 84, 94 and 98 and at point 109 in Vosges. Table 6 summarizes the geographic distribution of the IL variants in the ALLR maps.

Table 6: ALLR maps 1054, 1052 and 1056

Department (Region)	Map 1054 (locale)	Map 1052 (locale)	Map 1056 (locale)
Vosges (Lorraine)	<i>-or</i> (108, 109)	<i>-or</i> (108, 109)	<i>-or</i> (109)
Meurthe-et-Moselle (Lorraine)	<i>-or</i> (84, 93, 98, 99)	<i>-or</i> (84, 93, 99)	<i>-or</i> (84, 94, 98)
Meuse (Lorraine)			
Moselle (Lorraine)	<i>-or</i> (95, 96)	<i>-or</i> (95, 96)	
Haut Rhin (Alsace)			
Bas Rhin (Alsace)			

The ALLR has one map, Map 12 (ALLR 1060), dedicated solely to the geographic distribution of the IL. On this map there are sixty-seven instances of the IL.

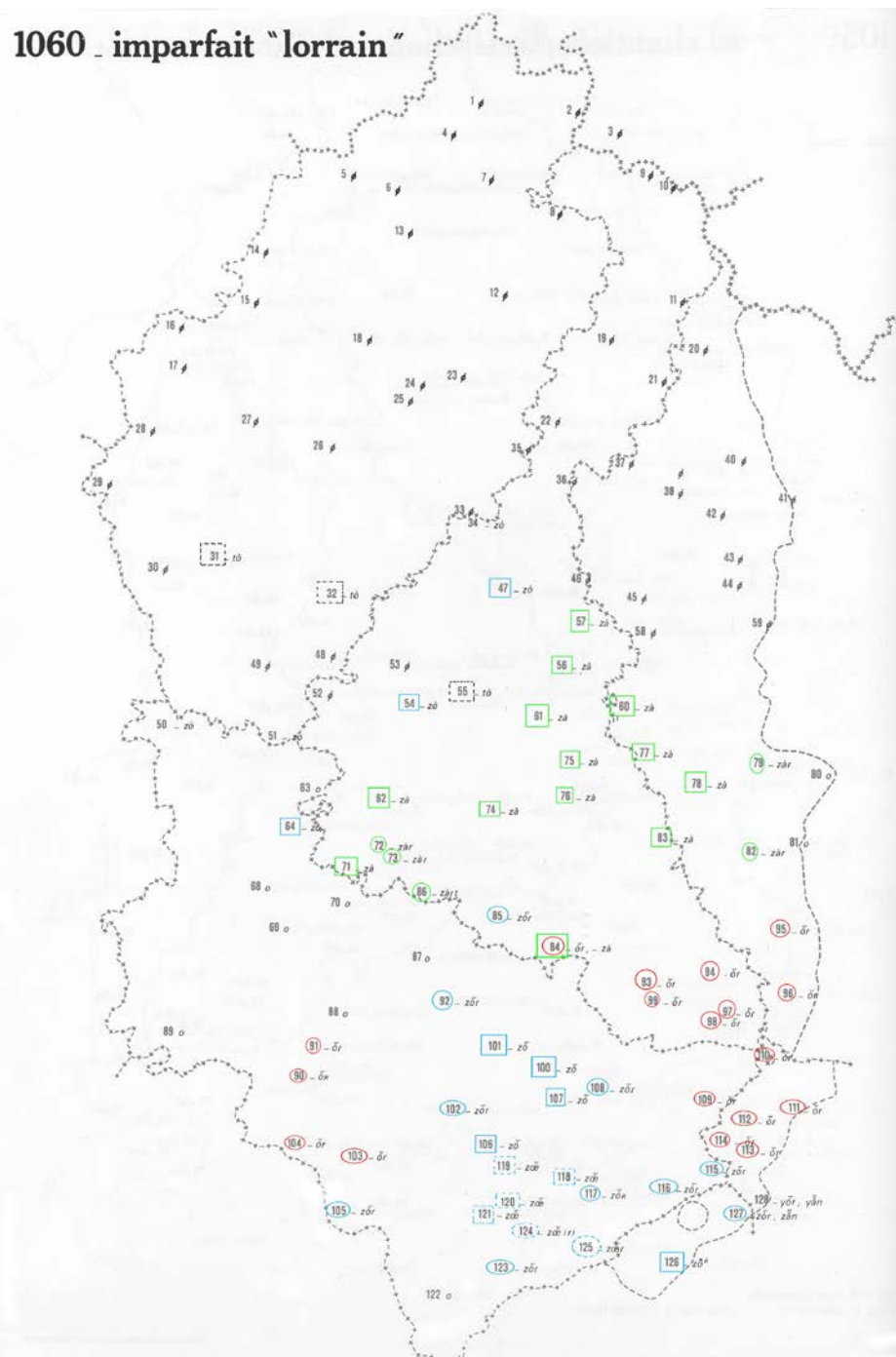


Figure 15: Map 12 (ALLR 1060)⁵³ IL

⁵³ 31 - Menaucourt; 32 - Sorcy-Saint-Martin; 34 - Pannes; 47 - Mamey; 50 - Grand; 51 - Brixey-aux-Chanoines; 54 - Pierre-la-Treiche; 55 - Velaine-en-Haye; 56 - Belleau; 57 - Port-sur-Seille; 60 -

The IL variant *-or* is found in Lorraine in the departments of Meurthe-et-Moselle (points 84,⁵⁴ 93-94, 97-99), Moselle (points 95-96) and Vosges (points 90⁵⁵-91, 103-104, 109-110) and in Alsace in the department of Bas-Rhin (points 111-114, 128⁵⁶). The variant *-to* is found in Lorraine in the departments of Meuse (points 31-32) and Meurthe-et-Moselle (point 55). Variant *-za* shows up in the departments of Meurthe-et-Moselle (points 56-57, 61-62, 74-76, 83-84) and Moselle (points 60, 77-78). Variant *-zar* is also located in Meurthe-et-Moselle (points 72-73, 86⁵⁷) and Moselle (79, 82) as well as in Haut-Rhin (Alsace, point 126⁵⁸). Variant *-zo* can only be found in Lorraine in Meurthe-et-Moselle (points 34, 47, 54), Meuse (point 51) and Vosges (points 50, 64, 100-101, 106-107) while variant *-zoe* is only found in Vosges (points 118-121, 124-125⁵⁹). Lastly, variant *-zor* shows up in Lorraine in the departments of Meurthe-et-Moselle (point 85) and Vosges (points 92, 102, 105, 108, 115-117⁶⁰, 123) and in Haut-Rhin, Alsace (point 127⁶¹). The geographic distribution of the IL variants in ALLR map 1060 is shown in Table 7.

Manhoué; 61 - Lay-Saint-Christophe; 62 - Goviller; 64 - Aouze; 72 - Saxon-Sion; 73 - Praye; 74 - Azelot; 75 - Velaine-sous-Amance; 76 - Drouville; 77 - Chambrey; 78 - Haraucourt-sur-Seille; 79 - Lidrezing; 82 - Assenoncourt; 83 - Coincourt; 84 - Vallois; 85 - Borville; 86 - Germonville; 90 - La Haye; 91 - Escles; 92 - Vaxoncourt; 93 - Reherrey; 94 - Harbouey; 95 - Neufmoulins; 96 - Saint-Quirin; 97 - Saint-Saveur; 98 - Angomont; 99 - Vacqueville; 100 - Autrey; 101 - Padoux; 102 - La Baffe; 103 - Bellefontaine; 104 - Le Clerjus; 105 - Val d'Ajol; 106 - Saint-Jean-du-Marché; 107 - Mortagne; 108 - La Bourgonce; 109 - Belval; 110 - Raon-sur-Plaine; 111 - Barembach; 112 - Plaine; 113 - Ranrupt; 114 - Bourg-Bruche; 115 - Lubine; 116 - Gemaingoutte; 117 - Anould; 118 - Corcieux; 119 - Champdray; 120 - Liézey; 121 - Le Tholy; 123 - La Bresse; 124 - Gérardmer; 125 - Le Valtin; 126 - Fréland; 127 - Rombach-le-Franc; 128 - Breitenau.

⁵⁴ At point 84, there are two variants, *-or* and *-za*.

⁵⁵ At point 90, the variant *-or* is represented as *-oR*.

⁵⁶ At point 128, the variant *-or* is represented as *-yor*.

⁵⁷ At point 85, the variant *-zar* is represented as *-zart*.

⁵⁸ At point 126, the variant *-zo* is represented as *-zon*.

⁵⁹ At points 124-5, the variant *-zoe* is represented as *-zoe[r]*.

⁶⁰ At point 117, the variant *-zor* is represented as *-zoR*.

⁶¹ At point 127, there are two variants, *-zor* and *-za*, the latter of which is represented as *-zan*.

Table 7: ALLR Map 1060

Department (Region)	Map 1060 (locale)
Vosges (Lorraine)	- <i>or</i> (90, 91, 103, 104, 109) - <i>zor</i> (92, 102, 105, 108, 115, 116, 117, 123) - <i>zoer</i> (124, 125) - <i>zo</i> (64, 100, 101, 106, 107) - <i>zoe</i> (118, 119, 120, 121)
Meurthe-et-Moselle (Lorraine)	- <i>or</i> (84, 93, 94, 97, 98, 99) - <i>zor</i> (85) - <i>zo</i> (47, 54) - <i>zar</i> (72, 73, 86) - <i>za</i> (56, 57, 61, 62, 71, 74, 75, 76, 83, 84) - <i>to</i> (55)
Meuse (Lorraine)	- <i>to</i> (31, 32)
Moselle (Lorraine)	- <i>or</i> (95, 96) - <i>zar</i> (79, 82) - <i>za</i> (60, 77, 78)
Haut Rhin (Alsace)	- <i>or</i> (111, 112, 113, 114)
Bas Rhin (Alsace)	- <i>or</i> (95, 96) - <i>zar</i> (79, 82) - <i>za</i> (60, 77, 78)

3.3.4 DISCUSSION

The geographic distribution of the IL is well-attested in linguistic atlases from the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries as well as in the mid-twentieth century. We can see from the atlases that the IL spans two regions in France, Lorraine and Alsace. In Lorraine, the IL is found in all four departments, Meurthe-et-Moselle, Moselle, Meuse and Vosges. In Alsace, the IL is attested in both departments, Bas-Rhin and Haut-Rhin.

According to the ALF, the IL is found in the departments of Meuse, Meurthe-et-Moselle and Vosges in Lorraine and the departments of Bas-Rhin and Haut-Rhin in Alsace. Eight orthographic variants are attested in the ALF: *-to*, *-zo*, *-ta*, *-za*, *-or*, *-tor*, *-zor*, and *-zar*. The IL variant *-to* is distributed primarily in the western area of Lorraine while the variant *-ta* is found primarily in the central area. The ALF shows a broader range of IL variants, specifically *-tor*, *-zor*, *-or*, and *-zo*. To the east of Lorraine, speakers prefer the variant *-or*.

The ALVM paints a somewhat similar picture to the ALF. Because of the small area of investigation, we only see three IL variants, *-or*, *-zor* and *-zoe*, restricted to the southern Vosgien area.

According to the ALLR, the IL is attested in all four departments in Lorraine and in both departments in Alsace. Furthermore, speakers still used seven IL variants in the mid-twentieth century: *-to*, *-zo*, *-za*, *-zoe*, *-or*, *-zar* and *-zor*. Like the ALF, the ALLR shows that the variant *-to* is located primarily in the western areas of Lorraine. In the central and eastern areas of Lorraine, we mainly find the variants *-zo*, *-za*, *-or* and *-zar*. The southern areas primarily show a distribution of the following variants: *-zor*, *-zoe* and *-or*. In Alsace, the primary variant still in use at this time is *-or*.

If we include the data from all three linguistic atlases, a larger picture emerges for the spatial distribution of the IL. The variant *-or* shows up in three out of four departments in Lorraine (Vosges, Meurthe-et-Moselle, Moselle) and in neighboring Alsace. *-Zor* is attested in Lorraine (Vosges and Meurthe-et-Moselle) and Alsace. *-Zo* is also distributed across three Lorraine departments (Vosges, Meurthe-et-Moselle and Meuse) as well as in Alsace, but *-zoe* is only found in Vosges and Alsace. Both *-zar* and *-za* are found in central and eastern areas of Lorraine in the departments of Meurthe-et-Moselle and Moselle. *-Tor* is situated to the south in Vosges while *-to* is located in central and eastern

areas of Lorraine in Meurthe-et-Moselle and Meuse. Lastly, *-ta* is restricted to the central department of Meurthe-et-Moselle. The three atlases overlap only with respect to the variants *-or* and *-zor* in Vosges. The ALF is unique in that it is the only atlas to attest the use of the IL variant *-ta* in Meurthe-et-Moselle. The ALLR also shows considerable differences from the other two atlases. Specifically, it is the only one to attest the variant *-to* in Meurthe-et-Moselle. Additionally, the ALLR introduces the variants *-zo* in Meuse and Alsace and *-zoe* in Alsace and is the only atlas to attest any data in the department of Moselle, which gives the variants *-or*, *-zar* and *-za*. The comparison between the three linguistic atlases is summed up below in Table 8:

Table 8: IL variants in ALF, ALVM and ALLR ⁶²

Atlas	Department	IL variant(s)
ALF	Vosges	<i>-or -zor, -zo, -tor</i>
	Meurthe-et-Moselle	<i>-zo, -zar, -za, -ta</i>
	Meuse	<i>-to</i>
	Alsace ⁶³	<i>-or, -zor</i>
ALVM	Vosges	<i>-or, -zor, -zoe</i>
ALLR	Vosges	<i>-or, -zor, -zo, -zoe</i>
	Meurthe-et-Moselle	<i>-or, -zor, -zo, -zar, -za, -to</i>
	Meuse	<i>-zo, -to</i>
	Moselle	<i>-or, -zar, -za</i>
	Bas-Rhin	<i>-or</i>
	Haut-Rhin	<i>-zor, -zo, -zoe</i>

⁶² Variants *-zeur*, *-zeu* and *-zooue* are not attested in the atlases.

⁶³ Recall that the departments in Alsace were not indicated in this atlas.

3.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, I provided some background information on Lorrain, including the areas in France in which it is spoken and the current state of the language given its endangered status. I then focused specifically on the language itself, outlining several sub-varieties of Lorrain and its verbal system. Next, I examined the geographic distribution, drawing upon data from three linguistic atlases. The atlases show that the IL extends across all four departments of Lorrain and into Alsace but never seemed to reach into northern Lorraine. All three atlases attest that the IL is geographically restricted to Lorraine and to smaller parts of Romance-speaking Alsace. While the atlases recognize the importance of the verbal form in the Lorrain speaking community, they can only give us a synchronic snapshot of the forms, which presents the IL in a very unified manner. In the next chapter, I review more studies on the IL, which present a less unified description of the dialectal form as compared to what is presented in the atlases.

CHAPTER 4

THE *IMPARFAIT LORRAIN* IN REVIEW

4.1 Introduction

Over the last two centuries, scholarship on the IL has been drawn primarily on atheoretical approaches in a range of works such as grammars and monographs, dialectal lexicons, reviews, squibs and linguistic analyses. A review of the literature on the IL shows a divided picture. On one hand, scholars describe the IL primarily in connection to IS, showing how the IS and IL stand in paradigmatic opposition (Adam 1881; de Lazarque 1883; Horn 1922; Lemasson 1927; Martin 1939; Aub-Büscher 1962; Richard 1973). On the other, *or(es)* is described as some type of marker that fulfills a type of temporal and/or discourse-pragmatic role (Oberlin 1970[1775]; Jouve 1864; Haillant 1885; Hingre 1887; Richard 1973; Lanher 2005). Because the vast majority of scholarship has only been able to paint a preliminary picture of the IL, the purpose of this chapter is to review the body of scholarly work on the IL and demonstrate how these previous attempts have showed a rather divided picture with respect to the IL.

The chapter is organized as follows: the first section (4.2) discusses studies that privilege the view that the IL stands in paradigmatic opposition to the IS. As previously noted, other terms such as *imparfait prochain/imparfait distant* (Adam 1881; Lemasson 1927; Martin 1939), *imparfait proche/imparfait simple* (Aub-Büscher 1962) were originally introduced in the literature to describe the paradigmatic opposition. For the sake of clarity, I will continue to use the terms IL and IS. In section 4.3, the studies

reviewed give another perspective in which *or(es)* is characterized as multifunctional in so far as it has acquired non-temporal properties. In the third part, section 4.4, I review Richard's (1973) study on the IL. I refer to this as the 'composite perspective', since it offers an analysis that combines the two previous perspectives. Section 4.5 concludes the chapter with a summary of the studies.

4.2 The *imparfait lorrain/imparfait standard* perspective

4.2.1 ADAM (1881)

Adam's (1881) monograph on Lorrain provides the most comprehensive description of the IL to date, referring to the form as a dialectal innovation due to its absence in Latin or French and any other French dialect and Romance languages/dialects.

L'imparfait prochain est une création patoise puisque ce temps manque au latin comme au français. Mais, il se peut que les désinences -or, -tor, -zor, -zeux, etc., proviennent de la voie moyenne du latin ou de celle du Celtique [the recent imperfect is a dialectal innovation since this tense is absent in Latin and in French. But, it is possible that the endings *-or, -tor, -zor, -zeux*, etc., originate from Latin or Celtic]. (p. XL, footnote 1)

Adam's contribution is important to the study of the IL in two main respects. First, Adam observes a paradigmatic opposition between the IL and the IS,⁶⁴ noting several examples of the opposition in several different communities in Lorraine. Observe the paradigmatic opposition in (65) between the IL and the IS of three verbs *avoir* 'have', *être* 'be' and *valloir* 'be worth' in two communities, noted in parentheses, in Lorraine.

⁶⁴ Adam uses the terms *imparfait prochain* and the *imparfait distant*, respectively.

- (65) Paradigmatic opposition in the *imparfait* in Ventron and Vittel (adapted from Adam 1881: 115, 140, 170)

	IL	IS
(Ventron) <i>avoir</i> ‘have’		
1SG	<i>idj’avouee-or</i> ⁶⁵	<i>idj’avouée</i>
2SG	<i>t’avouee-s-or</i>	<i>t’avouée</i>
3SG	<i>el avoui-t-or</i>	<i>èl avouit</i>
1PL	<i>nos avouins-or</i>	<i>nos avouins</i>
2PL	<i>vos avouins-or</i>	<i>vos avouins</i>
3PL	<i>el avouent-or</i>	<i>èl avouètent</i>
(Vittel) <i>être</i> ‘be’		
1SG	<i>j’ète-taure</i>	<i>j’ètôes</i>
2SG	<i>t’ète-taure</i>	<i>t’ètôes</i>
3SG	<i>l’ète-taure</i>	<i>l’ètôet</i>
1PL	<i>j’ètin-taure</i>	<i>j’ètins</i>
2PL	<i>voes ètin-taure</i>	<i>væs ètins</i>
3PL	<i>l’ètin-taure</i>	<i>l’ètint</i>
(Ventron) <i>valloir</i> ‘be worth’		
1SG	<i>i valléeor</i>	<i>i vallée</i>
2SG	<i>té vallée-z-or</i>	<i>té vallée</i>
3SG	<i>è valli-t-or</i>	<i>è valli</i>
1PL	<i>nos vallinzor</i>	<i>nos vallins</i>
2PL	<i>vos vallinzor</i>	<i>vos vallins</i>
3PL	<i>è valléet-or</i>	<i>è valléetent</i>

Note the intra-dialectal variance of the IL (e.g. *-or* ~ *-s-or* ~ *-t-or* ~ *-z-or*, ~ *-zor*) as well as the inter-dialectal variance (e.g., *-or* in Ventron vs. *-taure* in Vittel):⁶⁶ Adam proposes

⁶⁵ Hyphen is copied from Adam.

⁶⁶Adam also describes an opposition between a *plus-que-parfait lorrain* and a *plus-que-parfait standard* or what he refers to as *plus-que-parfait prochain* and *plus-que-parfait distant* respectively, as seen in (1) for the verbs *avoir* ‘have’ and *être* ‘be’ in the variety of Lorrain spoken in Le Tholy:

that the paradigmatic opposition stems from a temporal distinction between the IL and the IS, “[d]ans plus de soixante des communes de l’enquête, quand on veut indiquer, à l’imparfait, que l’action s’est accomplie récemment, il faut employer le temps auquel j’ai donné le nom d’imparfait prochain par opposition à l’imparfait distant” [in more than sixty communities from the survey, when one wants to indicate, in the imperfect, that the action was accomplished recently, it is necessary to use the tense, to which I have given the name recent imperfect in opposition to the distant imperfect] (p. XL). Thus, according to Adam, the IL locates the time of a past situation as relatively close to the utterance time, whereas the IS locates the time of a past event as relatively far from the utterance time.

Although Adam does not specify the interval of time that provides the basis for marking a temporal distinction in Lorrain, we can assume that a hodiernal (today)/pre-hodiernal (before today) contrast underlies the distribution of the two forms based on the following example, in which the IL (in bold) is used to mark an event that occurred on the day of the utterance and the IS (underlined> is used to mark an event that occurred the day before the moment of utterance (66):

(1) Paradigms of the 1SG PPL and PPS (adapted from pp. 122, 146)

	<i>avoir</i> 'have'	<i>être</i> 'be'
PPL	<i>j'ovouézeur èvu</i>	<i>j'ovouèzeur tu</i>
PPS	<i>j'ovoué èvu</i> 'I have had'	<i>j'ovouè tu</i> 'I have been'

- (66) *L' mètìn -ci en sôtant fieù d' le taut i â biè*
the morning here in leave.GER out from the roof I have.1SG.PRES well
- vu qu' è fera di mètchant tops ro qu'*
see.PP that it make/do.3SG.FUT of.the bad weather nothing that
- en èpïant las niaïes qué **venintor** dè grand vot, ècha*
in observe.GER the clouds that come.3PL.IL of big wind yesterday
- ells nè venint-mi si vite.*⁶⁷
theyNEG come.3PL.IS-NEG so quickly
‘This morning while coming out of the house on the roof I saw indeed that there
would be some bad weather just by spotting clouds that were moving in from a
strong wind, last night they weren’t moving in so quickly.’ (Adam 1881: XL)

At first glance, Adam’s argument seems logical since distinguishing between near past events and distant past events in tense-aspect systems is well documented in languages and is commonly referred to as a remoteness distinction (Dahl 1983; Botne 2012). According to Botne (2012), the most common basis for marking a remoteness distinction is a contrast between a hodiernal (today) interval and some other interval. Observe how the present perfect (‘have’ auxiliary + past participle (PP)), in bold, is recruited to expresses a hodiernal interval while the preterite (PAST), underlined, expresses a pre-hodiernal (before today) interval in Gallo-Romance (67) - (69):

⁶⁷ English translation based on Adam’s (1881) Modern French translation: *ce matin en sortant de la maison (du toit) j’ai bien vu qu’il ferait du méchant temps rien qu’en regardant les nuages qui venaient de grand vent, hier soir ils ne venaient pas si vite.*

Gallo (Western French)

- (67) *Je botelime dans lez Noes-Naire yer tantôt e*
 We squeeze.2SG.PASTin the Noes-Naire yesterday soon and
- j' om tout **charreyei** notr fein aujourd'hui.*
 We have.2PL.PRES all bring.PP our hay today
 'We squeezed in the Noës-Noires during the evening last night and we brought
 back all of our hay today.' (Deriano 2005: 192)

Gascon (Occitan French, southern)

- (68) *Aqueste matin qu' èi **copat** ua assièta.*
 this morning REL have.1SG.PRES break.PP a plate
 'This morning I broke a plate.'
- (69) *Ier, que copèi ua assièta.*
 Yesterday REL break.1SG.PAST a plate
 'Yesterday I broke a plate.' (Grosclaude 1977: 113)

The difference in remoteness between the present perfect and the preterite is closely connected to aspectual differences (e.g., imperfective vs. perfective) between the two verbal forms. The present perfect, which expresses current relevance or the persistent result of a past situation at a salient time, typically speech time, in the discourse (Comrie 1976), implies temporal closeness. The preterite, on the other hand, is perfective in nature and refers to a situation that takes place wholly within a past interval of time. Thus, the preterite is naturally compatible with distant events.

Unfortunately, Adam (1881) only provides that one example in which the remoteness distinction is attested so it is difficult to understand how systematic the distinction is in the grammar. Because of the paucity of examples, it is unclear whether the IL is able to appear in other contexts not constrained by temporal distance. Furthermore, there is evidence that suggests that the recent past versus distance

distinction is no longer viable in certain sub-varieties of Lorrain due to breakdown in the paradigmatic opposition between the IL and IS, as shown in (70):

(70) Paradigm of *imparfait* (Adam 1881: 116, 141, 171)

	Laneuvelotte ⁶⁸	Domgermain	Einville
	<i>avoir</i> 'have'	<i>être</i> 'be'	<i>dire</i> 'say'
1SG	<i>j'èvoza</i>	<i>j'ateuil-zôue</i>	<i>je dehoza</i>
2SG	<i>t'èvoza</i>	<i>t'ateuil-zôue</i>	<i>te dehoza</i>
3SG	<i>l'èvoza</i>	<i>l'atò-zôue</i>	<i>il dehoza</i>
1PL	<i>j'evinza</i>	<i>j'atin-zôue</i>	<i>je dehinza</i>
2PL	-	<i>v'atin-zòoue</i>	-
3PL	-	<i>l'atin-tôue</i>	-

If the IL form is the only documented form to express the indicative imperfect in these three Lorrain varieties (Laneuvelotte, Domgermain and Einville), then there is an implication that it has taken over the distant past domain.

Second, Adam (1881) identifies IL variants and notes their geographic distribution in Lorraine.⁶⁹ Because Adam's monograph relies on data from several varieties of Lorrain, he is able to give a picture of the IL's spatial variation based on his informants' locations, as shown in Table 9:

⁶⁸ Note that Adam (1881) does not indicate the second and third person plural forms from the paradigm in the communities of Laneuvelotte and Einville varieties. Furthermore, it is important to point out that there is intra-dialectal variation of the IL variant in the Domgermain variety (e.g., *-zôue* ~ *-tôue*).

⁶⁹ His study used a survey, which was sent out to a total of 268 communities.

Table 9: Geographic distribution of IL variants⁷⁰ (adapted from Adam 1881: 173)

Variant	Community
<i>-or</i>	Celles, ⁷¹ Hablainville, Lachapelle, Leintrey, Moyen, Parux, Pettonville, Pexonne, Rehérey [Reherrey], Thiaville, Vallois, Vallois (Meurthe-et-Moselle); La Bresse, Luvigny, Moyenmoutier, Raon-sur-Plaine, Rouges-Eaux, Saales, Saint-Blaise-la-Roche, Saulxures, ⁷² Ventron, Vexaincourt (Vosges)
<i>-zor</i>	Saint-Remy-aux-Bois (Meurthe-et-Moselle); Autigny, ⁷³ Lusse, Saint-Amé, Vagney (Vosges)
<i>-zo</i>	Allain, Vannes-le-Chatel (Meurthe-et-Moselle); Bult, Deycimont, Sainte-Barbe, Vomécourt (Vosges); Sainte-Etienne ⁷⁴
<i>-zeur</i>	Gérardmer, Gerbépal, Le Tholy (Vosges)
<i>-zeu</i>	Vienville (Vosges)
<i>-zar</i>	Hamonville, Lemainville (Meurthe-et-Moselle)
<i>-za</i>	Anthelupt, Battigny, Custines, Einville, Hoéville, Laneuvelotte, Malzéville, Vandéleville, Vitrimont (Meurthe-et-Moselle)
<i>zooue</i>	Domgermain, Landremont, Mousson, Port-sur-Seille (Meurthe-et-Moselle)
<i>-tor</i>	Rupt ⁷⁵ (Meuse); Gircourt, ⁷⁶ Grand-Bois, Ramonchamp, Vittel (Vosges)
<i>-to</i>	Deycimont, Longuet (Vosges)

⁷⁰ Communities are listed in alphabetical order according to department. Semi-colons represent a different department, noted in parentheses.

⁷¹ Celles refers to Celles-sur-Plaine.

⁷² Saulxures is not listed as one of the communities in the index. Thus, I assume that Saulxures refers to the canton of Saulxures (see pg. XII) and is comprised of the following communities: Ventron, La Bresse, Vagney and Le Tholy.

⁷³ Autigny refers to Autigny-la-Tour.

⁷⁴ Sainte-Etienne is not listed as one of the communities in the index.

⁷⁵ It is unclear whether Rupt refers to Rupt-sur-Othain in the canton of Damvillers or if it refers to Rupt-en-Woëvre in the canton of Verdun, both of which are located in Meuse.

⁷⁶ Gircourt refers to Gircourt-les-Viéville.

Like the linguistic atlases, Adam finds the variants *-or*, *-zor* and *-zo* in the department of Vosges. In contrast, his data finds the variant *-to* in Vosges and the variant *-tor* in Meuse. Additionally, Adam notices three variants of the IL not attested in the atlases: *-zeur* and *-zeu* in Vosges and *-zooue* in Meurthe-et-Moselle.

Paris's (1881) review of Adam's (1881) *Les patois lorrains* raises two issues: the first concerns the semantic difference between the two *imparfait* forms and the second concerns the origins of the “innovative” form. Concerning the first issue, Paris points out that analogical leveling implies a leveling of semantic differences, casting doubt on the recent vs. distant opposition between the IL and IS:

Le fait le plus curieux que signale l'auteur, et qu'il atteste par de nombreux documents, est l'existence dans certains parlers lorrains de deux imparfaits de l'indicatif, dont le second diffère du premier par l'adjonction à toutes les personnes de la finale or (var. or, to, zo, zoûe, zar, za); ainsi, pour prendre l'exemple le plus simple, à côté de j'avwè, t'avwè, èl avwi, j'avwin, vs avwin, èl avwinte, on a: j'avwéor, t'avwèsor, èl avwitor, j'avwintor, vs avwintor, èl avwintor. M. Adam appelle cet imparfait l' « imparfait prochain » et l'autre « l'imparfait distant » ; mais cette nuance de sens, si elle est bien réelle..., n'existe que dans quelques communes disséminées sur tout le territoire¹[sic] ; les autres n'emploient pour l'imparfait qu'une forme, comme en français, tantôt celle du français, tantôt celle qui suffixe -or. [The most curious fact to which the author brings attention, and that he attests with numerous documents, is the existence of two indicative imperfects, the second differing from the first by the addition of a final or (var. or, to, zo, zoûe, zar, za), in certain Lorrain varieties; so, to take the simplest example, next to j'avwè, t'avwè, èl avwi, j'avwin, vs avwin, èl avwinte, we have: j'avwéor, t'avwèsor, èl avwitor, j'avwintor, vs avwintor, èl avwintor. Mr. Adam calls this imperfect the “immediate imperfect” and the other the “distant imperfect”; but this nuance of meaning, if it is truly real...; only exists in a few municipalities spread across the entire area; the others use only one form for the imperfect, like in French, at times the French imperfect, at others the imperfect with the -or suffix] (pp. 604-605)

Paris's second point challenges Adam's claim that the IL originates from Celtic or Latin influence given that *or(es)* was commonly used in the Middle Ages by French speakers:

Quelle est l'origine de cette forme en -or? L'auteur des Patois lorrains est porté (p. xl) [sic] à la chercher dans la voie moyenne du latin ou du celtique! S'il avait remarqué que la syllabe or s'ajoute non au thème, mais à chaque personne complète, il aurait rejeté bien loin une pareille idée, que tant d'autres raisons feraient écarter. Nous avons là évidemment l'agglutination de l'adverbe de temps or, ore, si usité au moyen âge. Ce phénomène...peut bien remonter au XVI^e siècle. Il serait intéressant d'en rechercher les commencements dans des textes de ce temps et même des temps antérieurs. [What is the origin of this form in -or? The author of *Patois lorrains* looks for it by way of Latin or Celtic! If he had noticed that the syllable *or* gets added not to the theme but to each complete person, he would have indeed rejected such an idea, as so many other reasons would rule it out. We obviously have here the agglutination of the temporal adverb *or, ore*, widely used during the Middle Ages. This phenomenon...could very well have started in the 16th century. It would be interesting to research its beginnings in contemporary texts as well as in older texts] (p. 605)

Thus, Paris calls for more research on the origins of the IL via a philological approach, a challenge that is addressed in de Lazarque's (1883) analysis.

4.2.2 DE LAZARQUE (1883)

de Lazarque is the first to offer a historical analysis of the IL, an account which may have been in response to Paris's (1881) criticism of *Les patois lorrain*. One assumes that de Lazarque takes into consideration Paris's claim - that the IL began in the sixteenth century - since he searches for the origins of the IL in texts from this era. In doing so, de Lazarque notices that the temporal adverb *or(es)* is often used in post-verbal position. In present tense contexts, de Lazarque finds that *or(es)* typically means *maintenant* 'now'

when placed after a verb (71) - (73). Notice that in the following examples there are no intervening elements between the verb and the adverb:

- (71) *Hé! qui est ores à la fenestre.*
 oh who be.3SG.PRES ORES at the window
 'Oh! who is at the window now?'
- (72) *O fortune! tu me fais ores cognoistre*
 oh fortune you me do/make.2SG.PRES ORES know.INF
 'Oh Fortune! You made me understand now.'
- (73) *Sommes ores bien détournés*
 be.2PL.PRES ORES well turn.around.PP
 'We are indeed turned around now.'
- (de Lazarque 1883: 225–226)

Yet, in other contexts, there may be intervening elements. For instance, de Lazarque shows that when the subject and the verb are inverted, the adverb no longer directly follows the verb but the subject (74):

- (74) *Et faut -il ores.*
 and need.3SG.PRES it ORES
 'And it is necessary now.' (de Lazarque 1883: 226)

In past tense contexts, de Lazarque observes that the meaning of 'now' shifts to *naguere* 'recently', *il n'y qu'un instant* 'not long ago'.⁷⁷

⁷⁷ Ollier (1995, 2000a) makes a similar observation when *or(es)* is used in conjunction with the *imparfait*. She proposes that role of *or(es)* is to situate the past event in proximity to the speech time, assigning a meaning of 'recently' or 'a little while ago' to the adverb:

de Lazarque concludes that the recent past reading of the IL is a natural reflex of the adverb's proximal deictic meaning (i.e., located closer to the speaker's space and time), which, when combined with the *imparfait*, reflects proximity to the speech event:

De là à en conclure la formation de l'imparfait prochain par l'adjonction de l'adverbe ores à l'imparfait ordinaire, ou distant, il n'y a pas loin. L'adverbe ores indiquant, suivant son sens ordinaire, une action actuelle ou peu éloignée dans le passé, en le joignant à l'imparfait ... a donné naissance à une forme grammaticale et a augmenté d'un temps la conjugaison des verbes. [From here we can conclude that the formation of the immediate imperfect by the addition of the adverb *ores* to the ordinary imperfect, or distant, is not far. The adverb *ores* indicating, according to its ordinary meaning, an actual action or an action not far in the past, by joining with the imperfect... gave birth to a grammatical form and expanded a tense in the verbal conjugation]. (p. 228)

de Lazarque (1883) proposes that the initial consonants *z* and *t* of the IL suffix originate from the final consonants *s* and *t* of the indicative *imparfait* (e.g., *chantais* 'sing.1SG.IS', *chantais* 'sing.2SG.IS', *chantait* 'sing.3SG.IS'), implying that the initial consonants originated from two separate phonological processes: liaison and *enchaînement*.

Liaison is a process whereby a word-final consonant appears before a vowel-initial word under certain syntactic conditions (Bybee 2001) (e.g., *petit* [pəti] + *ami* [ami] → [pətitami] 'little friend' (Nguyen, Wauquier, Lancia, & Tuller 2007: 3). Liaison

(2)	<i>Les</i>	<i>genz</i>	<i>Alixandre</i>	<i>s'</i>	<i>an</i>	<i>plaignent,</i>	<i>Car</i>	<i>d' aus,</i>
	the	people	Alexander	REFL	about.it	complain.3PL.PRES	because	of them
	<i>n'</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>avait</i>	<i>mes que</i>	<i>treze</i>	<i>Qui ore</i>	<i>estoitent</i>	<i>dis et</i>
	NEG	there	have.3SG.IS	less that	thirteen	who ORES	be.3PL.IS	ten and
	<i>seze.</i>							
	sixteen.							
	'Alexander's people complained, there were less than thirteen of them, who were once twenty-six not long ago.' (<i>Cligès</i> , vv. 2006 - 2008 [Ollier 2000a: 212])							

“the optimization of the processing of information coded in a linguistic utterance in light of the specific discourse needs of the interlocutors at the time of utterance” (Zimmermann & Onea 2011: 1652). Reframing the IS/IL opposition in terms of information structure, the IS refers to old or presupposed information (i.e., non-focused information) and the IL to new information (i.e., focused information):

Franz stellt fest, daß zwischen dem gewöhnlichen Imperfekt und dem auf -or kein Unterschied in der Temporalbedeutung besteht. Dagegen läßt sich ein Intensitätsunterschied beobachten: ‘Das vorher Gegebene pflegt mit dem einfachen Imperfekt wiedergegeben zu werden, das neu in die Aufmerksamkeit tretende mit dem erweiterten; die hinweisende Kraft der Endung ist nicht verschwunden.’ [Franz determined that there is no difference of the temporal meaning between the ordinary past tense and that with -or. But a difference in intensity can be observed: ‘Normally the facts which are previously given are expressed by the simple past tense, the new facts which come into the focus are expressed by the expanded form; the indicating power of the ending has not disappeared (translation provided by Brigitte Warns-Trockels)] (p. 270-1)

Thus, Franz (1920) concludes that there is no semantic difference per se between the two forms, but rather a pragmatic one that is motivated by a difference in focus, which is reminiscent of the relationship between focus and conjugational differences in African languages (Watters 1979, 2010; Hyman & Watters 1984; Thwing & Watters 1987; Fiedler 2006; Hartmann & Zimmermann 2009; Schwarz 2010). For example, in Bantu and Bantoid languages, multiple forms for one tense-aspect-mood (TAM) category are common; observe the differences in verbal conjugations (underlined) in the perfective paradigms in Western (77) - (78) and Eastern Ejagham (79) - (81):

Western Ejagham

(77) *Ntúi a-kân bi-yu*

(78) *Ntúi a-kân-‘é bi-yu*
‘Ntui carried yams.’

Eastern Ejagham

(79) *Ntwîa-kwê- bε-yu*

(80) *Ntwîa-kwén-é bε-yu*

(81) *Ntwîa-kwén-ε bε-yu*
‘Ntwi carried yams.’

(Watters 2010: 350)

These sentences in Western Ejagham and Eastern Ejagham are semantically synonymous to an extent, but formally different due to the presence or absence of a verbal suffix. When coupled with tonal properties, the conjugational differences involve the issue of focus. Thus, Franz’s observation may be relevant in accounting for the difference between the IL and IS since such focus and conjugational differences are attested in African languages. In fact, I find that the data do support that IL may have been recruited for the purposes of structuring discourse with respect to given versus new information.

4.2.4 LEMASSON (1927)

In the glossary of his grammar, Lemasson (1927) gives the following entry of *zo*, the variant of *or(es)* used in the Lorrain variety spoken in Fiménil (82):

- (82) *Zô [zô]. - Désinence qui s'ajoute à l'imparfait et au plus-que-parfait de l'indicatif, pour distinguer l'imparfait distant de l'imparfait prochain. [Ending that is added to the indicative imperfect and pluperfect to differentiate the distant imperfect from the immediate imperfect] (p. 122)*

Lemasson's definition describes that the variant *-zo* in Fiménil as a suffix added to the imperfect to express a recent past in contradistinction to the distant past, which is the imperfect without the added suffix *-zo*. A closer look at his examples reveals attestations of the IL (83), the *plus-que-parfait lorrain* (84), the IS (85) and *plus-que-parfait standard* (86).⁷⁹ Observe the hodiernal/pre-hodiernal cycle that serves as the basis of the remoteness distinction:

- (83) *Lo sâ ci je n' t' ètondèy zo mi.*
the night here I NEG you wait.1SG IL NEG
'Tonight, I wasn't waiting/didn't wait for you.'
- (84) *Lo mêtin ci, j' a°vouèy zo tu fâre in to.*
the morning here I have.3SG IL be.PP do.INF a walk
'This morning I had gone for a walk.'
- (85) *Eurmain je n' t' ètondè mi.*
yesterday I NEG you wait.1SG.IS NEG
'Yesterday, I wasn't waiting/didn't wait for you.'
- (86) *Lîndi dèrèy, j' a°vouè tu m' pa°rmonè quand t'*
monday last I have.1SG.IS be.PP REFL walk.INF when you
èriveu.
arrive.2SG.PAST
'Last Monday, I had gone for a walk when you arrived.'

(Lemasson 1927: 122)

⁷⁹ Lemasson refers to the IL as *imparfait prochain* and the PPL as *plus-que-parfait prochain*. He also refers to the IS as *imparfait distant* and to the PPS as *plus-que-parfait distant*.

While Lemasson’s observations point to a hodiernal/pre-hodiernal distinction, we cannot know definitively whether this distinction will hold up with respect to a broader data set. In fact, my data do not support such a systematic distinction.

4.2.5 MARTIN (1939)

Martin (1939) notes that a paradigmatic opposition of the IL and the IS exists in Petitmont, a variant of Lorrain. The formal distinction between IL and IS is shown in (87) with the verbs *avoir* ‘have’ and *être* ‘be’. The IL takes the *-or* suffix for all persons in the singular and plural paradigms. The IS continues the inherited Latin suffixes *-êye* for all persons in the singular and *-îne* for all persons in the plural:⁸⁰

(87) The bi-partite *imparfait* in Petitmont (Martin 1939: 137)

	<i>avoir</i> 'have'	<i>être</i> 'be'
1SG	<i>j'évôr or j'ovêye</i>	<i>j'otôr or j'otêye</i>
2SG	<i>t'évôr or t'ovêye</i>	<i>t'otôr or t'otêye</i>
3SG	<i>l'évôr or l'ovêye</i>	<i>l'otôr or l'otêye</i>
1PL	<i>j'évinor or j'ovîne</i>	<i>j'otinôr or j'otîne</i>
2PL	<i>vos ~ évinor or vos ~ ovîne</i>	<i>vos ~ otinôr or vos ~ otîne</i>
3PL	<i>is ~ évinor or is ~ ovîne</i>	<i>is otinôr or is otîne</i>

According to Martin, the IL is used to express a recent past and the IS to express an action that has taken place in a more distant past. What is rather confusing is that Charles

⁸⁰ Martin uses the terms *imparfait prochain* and *imparfait distant*, respectively.

Bruneau, in the preface to Martin's work, comments on the IL, stating that its main function is to mark exact simultaneity, not remoteness:

Le lorrain possède deux imparfaits, un imparfait qui marque l'exacte contemporanéité (j'ovor faim: « j'avais faim » quand vous êtes arrivés) et un imparfait qui présente le sens assez vague de l'imparfait français (l'ovêye faim: « il avait faim » depuis longtemps quand midi sonna). [Lorrain possesses two imparfaits, one imparfait that marks exact simultaneity (j'ovor faim: "I was hungry" when you arrived) and one imparfait whose meaning is as vague as the French imparfait (l'ovêye faim: "He had been hungry" for a while when the clock struck noon)] (p. 8)

What Bruneau did not remark upon is that the use of the temporal connective *quand* 'when' may actually be contributing a sense of exact simultaneity instead of the IL itself.

I also find that the examples provided in Martin's grammar fail to show an underlying recent versus distant past distinction:

- (88) *J'ovor faim quand vos otes arrivè.*
 I have.1SG.IL hunger when you be.2PL.PRES arrive.PP
 'I was hungry when you arrived.'

- (89) *l' ovêye faim dèpè longtemps quand midi sinnôr.*
 he have.3SG.IS hunger for long.time when noon chime.3SG.IL
 'He had been hungry for awhile when the clock struck noon.'

- (90) *J' ovinôr éti au bâl âssitôt éprés lo djinè.*
 we have.2PL.IL be.PP to.the ball immediately after the dinner
 'We had gone to the ball right after dinner.'

- (91) *l' ovêye éti gentil tote lè jonêye.*
 he have.3SG.IS be.PP nice all the day
 'He had been well-behaved all day.'

(Martin 1939: 139)

None of the above examples exhibit any type of recent/distant past dichotomy. Example (88) is more in line with Bruneau's comment wherein the IL is used to mark simultaneity. Note too that the IL form *sinnôr*, which shows up in (89), is more compatible with a perfective reading. In (90), the time at which the event of going to the ball took place is unspecified; it is unclear whether this event occurred recently or at a more distant time in the past. Thus, the example only shows that another event took place immediately after another. Similarly, the state of being well in (91) could have occurred on the same day as the speech time or on a different day. In my analysis, I find, rather, a discourse-structuring use wherein given versus new information may be at play to help account for the IS/IL opposition.

4.2.6 AUB-BÜSCHER (1962)

Aub-Büscher (1962) also notes the existence of a recent/distant past distinction with respect to the IL and the IS⁸¹ in the Ranrupt dialect in Bash-Rhin (Alsace), leading her to posit a distinction between the IS and IL verbal endings, shown in (92):

(92) IS and IL verbal endings (Aub-Büscher 1962: 81)

	SG	PL
IS	-èy	-in
IL	-or	-inor

⁸¹ She refers to the forms as the *imparfait proche* and the *imparfait simple*, respectively.

According to her study, the IL form represents a recent past in contrast to the IS which represents a distant past:

*Le patois de Ranrupt présente un des traits les plus marquants des parlers vosgiens et lorrains: à côté de l'imparfait tel que le connaît le français, il dispose d'un imparfait dit "proche", exprimant une action qui s'est déroulée récemment.- Quand nous demandions les formes de l'imparfait lors de notre enquête, la réponse qu'on nous donnait était: "Si cela s'est passé aujourd'hui, c'est...(suivait une forme de l'imparfait proche), si cela s'est passé hier, c'est...(une forme de l'imparfait distant). [Ranrupt's dialect presents one of the most remarkable traits of the Vosgien and Lorrain dialects: alongside the French *imparfait*, it has available an immediate/close *imparfait*, expressing an action that took place recently. When we asked the forms of the *imparfait* in our survey, the answer that they gave us was: If it happened today, it's...(using a form in the immediate imperfect), if it happened yesterday, it's...(a distant imperfect form)]* (p. 80-81)

Aub-Büscher corroborates her claim further by providing examples attesting the aforementioned recent past (93) - (94) versus distant past (95) - (96) distinction:

- (93) *j avor fẽ.*
I have.1SG.IL hunger
'I was hungry.' (said earlier, for example, after a meal)
- (94) *j awèy fẽ.*
I have.1SG.IS hunger
'I was hungry.' (said while recounting an event)
- (95) *t dærmor.*
you sleep.2SG.IL
'You were sleeping.' (said to someone who just woke up)
- (96) *t dærmèy.*
you sleep.2SG.IS
'You were sleeping.' (said while recounting past events)

(Aub-Büscher 1962: 81)

Of all the studies on the IL, Aub-Büscher's study presents the strongest empirical observations for a remoteness distinction since her examples are based on actual speaker judgments. Although the data do not support a systematic divide in my analysis, there are instances where a recent versus distant past distinction cannot be entirely ruled out.

4.3 Multifunctional perspective

4.3.1 OBERLIN (1970[1775])

To the best of my knowledge, the first grammar to note the use of *or(es)* in connection to Lorrain's verbal paradigm is Oberlin's (1970[1775]) work on the Lorrain variety spoken in Ban de la Roche, a conglomerate of communities located in Bas-Rhin (Alsace). His grammar provides several *echantillons* 'samples' of Lorrain texts comprised of dialogues, stories, songs, fables, and letters from two different areas in Lorraine, Ban de la Roche and nearby Luneville (Meurthe-et-Moselle, Lorraine).

While there are no attestations of the imperfect and *or(es)* in any of the texts from Ban de la Roche, there are twelve instances found in three Luneville texts.⁸² Oberlin does not explicitly reference the term IL but rather remarks upon the use of the preterite ending in *-za* attested in the Luneville texts,⁸³ stating:

⁸² When presenting the texts, Oberlin maintains the same orthography adopted by a friend who happens to be the same person who gave Oberlin the Luneville texts, stating “[p]our l’exprimer, j’ai gardé scrupuleusement l’orthographe adoptée par l’ami, qui me l’a fourni” [[t]o write it [the Luneville variety], I followed to the letter the spelling adopted by my friend who gave it [the text, SR] to me]. (p. 120)

⁸³ I noticed the orthographic variant *sa* in the texts as well.

On aura remarqué sans doute, dans les échantillons du patois des contrées de Luneville, une certaine différence de la troisième personne du Prétérit.... Elle se termine en ò, en òza, en eù, en euch, au singulier; au pluriel en in ou in. . . . Le za dans fayozza, pour ajouter au moins cette observation, signifie quelquefois ainsi; ailleurs il n'est ajouté, que pour donner plus d'énergie &[sic] plus de grace au discours. [One will have noticed without a doubt in the text samples of the Luneville dialect a specific difference in the third person preterite. It ends in ò, òza, eù, euch, in the singular; and in in or in in the plural....The za in fayozza [faire 'do/make'], at least to add this bit of observation, sometimes means ainsi 'in this way, so'; in other words it is only added to give more energy and grace to the discourse] (p. 165)

Unfortunately, it is unclear how he classifies *za* – on the one hand he mentions that *oza* is a preterite inflection but then goes on to isolate the meaning of *za* as separate from that of the verb. Thus, there is some confusion as to whether he is classifying *oza* as a verbal suffix or whether he views *za* as independent element (i.e., not a verbal suffix). Based on his description of *za*'s emphatic function, it appears to be the latter. In my analysis, I will show that Oberlin's general observations are correct; we will see that the temporal adverb had evolved into an MP wherein the adverbial's temporal sense was recruited for non-temporal uses to add overall coherence to what is said (Schiffrin 1987; Aijmer 2002; Defour 2007; Clancy & Vaughan 2012).

4.3.2 JOUVE (1864)

Jouve (1864) disagrees with Oberlin (1970[1775])'s description of *òza* “*comme une terminaison de l'imparfait*” [as an ending of the imperfect] (p. 75). Rather, Jouve concludes that *or(es)*⁸⁴ is best described as “*une espèce d'enclitique qu'on place après un verbe*” ‘a type of enclitic that one places after the verb’ (p. 75). He notes that in the sub-

⁸⁴ Jouve notates *or(es)* as *ore*.

dialect of Rambervillers (Vosgien), *zo* and/or *zor*, which developed from *zar*, a variant of *or(es)*, serves as a type of emphasizer, giving “*plus de force à l’affirmation*” (p. 75) [more strength to the assertion] in the same vein as the intensifying particle *gar* ‘completely’ (Diewald & Ferraresi 2008) in German.⁸⁵ While I agree with Jouve’s claim that *za/zo/zor* is a type of emphatic element, he, unfortunately, does not provide any illustrative examples in which *gar* and *or(es)* are similar. In sum, Jouve recognizes that *or(es)* belongs to the domain of syntax rather than to morphology, which provides a clue about the morphosyntactic status of *or(es)* in the nineteenth century. In my analysis, I find that *or(es)* as part of the IL construction takes on both clitic-like and affix-like properties.

4.3.3 HINGRE (1887)

Hingre (1887) finds that in negative contexts the post-verbal negative particle *mi* (< Old French *mie* ‘crumb’) may be placed between the verb and *or(es)*, (97). He notes that only in the third person singular/plural does the negation come between the verb and the particle.

- (97) *el ne veli mi-t-ore*
 he NEG want.3SG NEG-IL
 ‘he didn’t want.’ (Hingre 1887: 105)

Hingre, like Jouve (1864), suggest that *or(es)* is not an affix and belongs to a purely syntactic domain:

⁸⁵ In this regard, *zar* has many of the same functions as *gar* ‘completely’ in German (Diewald & Ferraresi 2008).

Le rédacteur des Patois lorrains y a vu . . . une seconde forme d'imparfait et de plus-que-parfait, une seconde espèce de flexion verbale; tandis qu'en réalité c'est tout simplement la survivance accidentelle d'une particule extrinsèque en guise d'enclitique, et qui ne touche en rien à la conjugaison proprement dite; un fait, non pas de flexion, mais de pure syntaxe. [The editor of *Patois lorrains* saw in the second form of the imperfect and pluperfect, a second piece of verbal morphology; while in reality it is simply the accidental survival of an external particle in the form of an enclitic, which has nothing to do with the conjugation; a fact, not of inflection, but of pure syntax] (p. 105)

He further points out that enclitic *or(es)*, in combination with the indicative imperfect, signals a situation that is linked to an immediately anterior implicit or explicit reference:

[L]orsqu'on veut préciser que l'action s'est passé dans un moment qui a suivi de près une autre action sous-entendue ou déjà désignée; alors on leur adjoint comme particule enclitique l'adverbe de temps òre – alors; exemple: wa-ce que té tée òre dò qu'i t â heuché – où est-ce que tu étais alors, quand je t'ai appelé?
 [When one wants to specify that the action took place during a moment that closely follows a previously implied or already asserted action; then one adds the enclitic temporal adverb *òre* – alors; example: *wa-ce que té tée òre dò qu'i t â heuché* – where were you then, when I called you?] (p. 104)

Thus, the meaning that Hingre assigns to *or(es)* appears to be more in line with Oberlin (1970[1775]) and Jouve's (1864) descriptions in that *or(es)* is functioning as some type of cohesive marker that links previous implicit or explicit utterances to the current situation. Specifically, Hingre's example shows that *or(es)* has developed a new non-temporal function that behaves similarly to a textual connective. Although, the exact function of *or(es)* is left undefined, I do find an analogous discourse-pragmatic use in my data set.

4.3.4 HAILLIANT (1885)

The entry for *or(es)*, (98), provided in Haillant's (1885) lexicon on the Vosgien variety spoken in Uriménil, notes:

- (98) *Tore (tô-r') enclitique de l'imparfait prochain. Orig. ancien adverbe ore à l'heure, du lat. ora; XV^e s.: Dixit ore nos il nous dit ore....*
[Tore (tô-r') - enclitic of the immediate imperfect. Orig. old adverb ore 'at the hour', from Latin; fifteenth century: he has told us now] (p. 579)

His observations corroborate Jouve (1864) and Hingre's (1887) sentiments that *or(es)* is not a verbal affix. Haillant's entry in (98) specifies that *-tore* is an enclitic derived from the archaic adverb *ore* 'at the time' and comes from the Latin noun *ora* 'hour'. Haillant notes a time period, fifteenth century, most likely referring to the time at which the IL emerged in Lorraine. He then gives an example of its use in Latin with a present perfect form of the verb *dicere* 'say, speak'. Like Hingre (1887), Haillant's example highlights the adverb's syntactic position in the sentence, in particular, its position to right of the verb and implies that the enclitic is temporal in nature since it combines with the imperfect to function as a recent past. Although his description leaves us with unanswered questions about *or(es)*'s behavior, it provides another piece of the puzzle in understanding the IL's function.

4.3.5 LANHER (2005)

At one of the conferences of the Académie de Stanislas held in 2005, Jean Lanher presented his analysis of the *Lettre Apolostique*,⁸⁶ a text translated from Latin into

⁸⁶ *Lettre Apostolique* appears to be the same text as *Traduction en patois du Pays de Toul, d'une bulle du souverain pontife Pie IX*.

Lorrain (Pagney-derriere-Barine dialect) published in 1865 by abbot Guillaume, a non-native speaker of Lorrain.⁸⁷ Guillaume's translation, based on informants' judgments and his own study of the Lorrain dialect, attests the use of the *imparfait* with the particle *-to*. In his analysis, Lanher reaches the same conclusion as Hingre (1887), claiming that *-to* is paraphrased by the Modern French adverbial *alors*. Although *alors* has both temporal and non-temporal meanings (Mosegaard Hansen 1997), it appears that Lanher assigns a temporal function to *alors* since he notes that “*-or (-to) introduit un moment ponctuel à l'intérieur d'un ensemble marquant la durée*” [*-or (-to)* introduces a punctual moment within a set marking duration] (p. 402). He thus translates a phrase marked by *-to* as “*la chose était **alors** en train de se faire, à un moment précis à l'intérieur d'un état qui durait*” [the thing was **at that moment/then** in the middle of occurring, at a precise moment within a durative state] (p. 402). In (99), I give Lanher's corresponding French translation of the Lorrain text, along with my own English translation in parentheses, to illustrate his translation of *-to* as *alors*:

- (99) Ç' ot pou celet que çaïix qu' atteint t'o devant nous...
 It be.3SG.PRES for this that those who be.3PL IL before us
*C'est pour cette raison-là que ceux qui **alors** (par leur âge) [sic] nous*
précédaient... ('It's for this reason that those who preceded us **then**...') (Lanher 2005: 402)

What is puzzling is that Lanher claims that *-to* “*...n'est plus perçu comme un adverbe, fonctionne bien comme tel*” [...is no longer perceived as an adverb, indeed functions as such/one]. (p. 402). If *-to* is no longer perceived as an adverb, then does that mean it still possesses temporal functions? Even more puzzling is that Lanher presents data from the

⁸⁷ Abbot Guillaume also translated the Latin text into Standard French.

Lettre Apolostique where *-to* is left untranslated, (100). Again, I present Lanher's French translation with my own English translation in parentheses to illustrate this point.

- (100) ...*in'* *mosse* *que n' autaum'to* *co*
 a mass that NEG be.3SG-IL still
 une messe que n'existait pas encore. ('the mass didn't exist yet.') (Lanher 2005:
 402)

If *-to* is no longer perceived as an adverb, which appears to be the case in (100) since no translation is given for it, then it seems reasonable to suggest that Lanher means that *-to* is no longer functioning as a temporal adverb. I would argue that example (100) corroborates this claim since the phasal adverb *co* 'still, yet', not *-to*, situates the state of affairs (i.e., the existence of a mass) within the interval of time under discussion.

Additionally, Lanher claims that *-to* designates a change. Although not included in the initial presentation, in the discussion following Lanher's talk, it is noted that "*Jean Lanher précise que l'imparfait indique un état qui dure. L'adjonction de «to» introduit l'instant où cet état cesse*" [Jean Lanher specifies that the imperfect indicates a durative state. The addition of "to" introduces the moment when this state ceases] (p. 407). Although this claim may seem puzzling at first, the use of a *now* word to mark a change of state has been discussed in relation to *now*'s role in discourse (e.g., Korean *icey* 'now' ((Lee & Choi 2008)). Thus, Lanher's observations, although brief, offer the same important insight as his predecessors - the temporal adverb has retained its temporal meaning in addition to having acquired a purported non-temporal meaning. Unfortunately, Lanher's analysis does not expand upon how such a non-temporal meaning arises and thus fails to adequately account for *or(es)*'s function.

4.4 Composite perspective

Richard's (1973)⁸⁸ study is the first to combine the previous two perspectives. In doing so, he breaks down the paradigmatic opposition of the two imperfects into three major types or systems, A, B and C, shown in (101), with respect to two major criteria: form and function:

(101) Types A, B and C of the *imparfait* in Lorraine of the verb *parler* 'talk, speak' (adapted from Richard 1973: 457)

System A	I	II
	SG <i>jæ palou</i>	<i>jæ paloza</i>
	PL <i>jæ palin</i>	<i>jæ paliza</i>
System B	A	B
	SG <i>je paley</i>	<i>je palor</i>
	PL <i>je palen</i>	<i>je palen/palinor</i>
System C	AI/BI	AII/BII
	SG <i>jæ paloey/palou</i>	<i>jæ paloeyto/paloto</i>
	I	II
	PL <i>jæ palen</i>	<i>jæ paleto</i>

In System A, Richard distinguishes between two *imparfait* forms: unmarked (I) and marked (II). The latter is derived from the former by “*l’addition d’une « particle » ou morpheme monosyllabique, en général atone, enclitique, et separable du morpheme d’imparfait, par le « m » de negation*” [the addition of a “particle” or monosyllabic

⁸⁸ Richard's (1973) presents Lorrain examples as phonetic transcriptions. I follow his spelling as closely as possible but leave out all diacritics as I find that pronunciation is not a crucial aspect to understanding the analysis.

morpheme, generally atonic, enclitic and separable from the *imparfait* morpheme, by the “m” of negation] (p. 442). Next, in System B, Richard differentiates between an A form and a B form in the singular, for which the categorization “unmarked” versus “marked” no longer applies due to the observation that the forms are irreducible. Lastly, System C attests both forms I and II and A and B - there is an opposition between form I (unmarked) and form II (marked, e.g., *palæyto/paloto*) in both the singular (e.g., *palæy/palou*) and plural (e.g., *palen*) paradigms; the A/B opposition only appears in the singular and is based on the length of the vowel in the suffix – the A form is short (e.g., -æy) in contrast to the B form, which is long (e.g. -o). Furthermore, he charts the geographic distribution of each system across the region of Lorraine,

Figure 16.

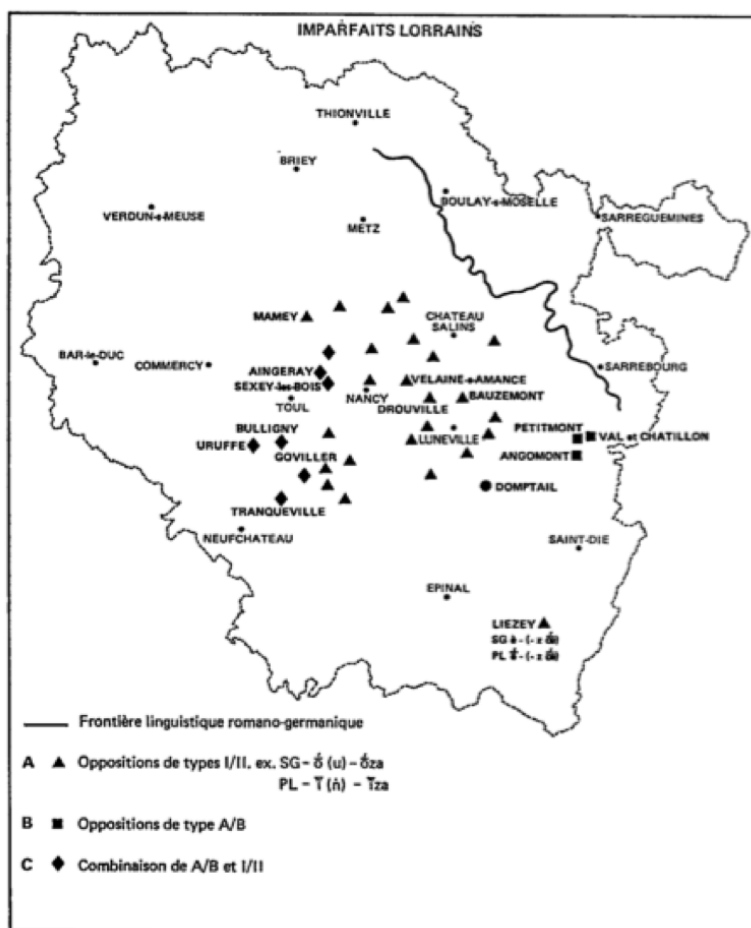


Figure 16: Map 13 Systems A, B and C in Lorraine (Richard 1973: 443)⁸⁹

From Map 13 it is clear that System A, represented as a triangle, is the only one to appear in the southern department of Vosges. We also see a concentration of System A in central and eastern Lorraine. System C, represented as a diamond, is situated in eastern Lorraine whereas System B, represented as square, is located in the eastern area.

⁸⁹ Domptail is the only locale marked by a circle. The circle indicates that there is one form for singular and plural *imparfait* forms. The singular and plural *imparfait* forms are distinguished by the use of the singular and plural subject pronouns, *je* (SF *je* 'I') and *no* (SF *nous* 'we') respectively.

The second criterion, function, requires a more in-depth discussion. According to Richard, System A, form II (e.g., *paloza*) may be used in recent past contexts, but can equally appear in contexts referring to a distant past, as seen in examples (102) - (104):

- (102) *ç'atôza di temps de Louis Philippe.*
 it be.3SG.IL of time of Louis Philippe
 'It was the time of Louis Philippe.' (Rousselot 1926: 84 [Richard 1973: 446])
- (103) *ç'atôza let joneye de let fête des Saints Innocents.*
 it be.3SG.IL the day of the celebration of Saints Innocents
 'It was All Saints day.' (Rousselot 1924: 70, 79 [Richard 1973: 446])
- (104) *L' eney derer, le jan etoza mallet.*
 the year last the John be.3SG.IL sick
 'Last year, John was sick.' (Richard 1973: 446)

The observation that the IL is allowed in distant past contexts leads Richard to conclude that both forms (I and II) of System A are not distinguished by a temporal meaning. Rather, form II serves as a discourse-structuring function to facilitate coherence and unity in conversation. For instance, when a specific situation is involved, form II always marks a coherence relation such as simultaneity (105), causality (106), consequence (107) or concession (108):

- (105) *Let Minette avo set merraine prenînzà d' lâoue et let*
 the Minette with her grandmother take.3PL.IL some water at the
*fontaine quand i peut crapa...*⁹⁰
 fountain when a tiny toad
 'Minette, with her grandmother, were taking some water from the fountain when... (Rousselot 1926: 26 [Richard 1973: 447])

⁹⁰ Richard does not provide complete example.

- (106) *j'l' e bodi padu, s'a demee: j' i*
 I it have.1SG.PRES obviously lost, it be.3SG.PRES pity I it

tnoza to pyen.

keep.1SG.IL all full

‘I obviously lost it, it’s too bad: I liked it a lot.’ (Richard 1973: 447)

- (107) *l' avo echete e Peris ... L' atoza tellement chingi*
 he have.3SG.II buy.PP at Paris he be.3SG.IL so change.PP

que les gens ne lo reconahhin pu.

that the people NEG him recognize.3PL.IS NEG

‘He had bought in Paris...He had been so changed that the people no longer recognized him.’ (Rousselot 1926: 67 [Richard 1973: 447])

- (108) *I n' eme velu qu' i soye dit qu' c*
 he NEG have.3SG.PRES want.PP that it be.3SG.SUBJ say.PP that it

en ato ! Et portant, l' en avo-za pien les doyes.

of.it be.3SG.IS and yet it of.it have.3SG-IL full the fingers

‘He didn’t want for what it was to be said! And yet, he was tired of it.’ (Rousselot 1926: 65 [Richard 1973: 447])

However, it is difficult to tell whether the coherence relations to which Richard refers are directly linked to the use of Form II or to the presence of connectives such as temporal *quand* ‘when’ in (105) and the concessive marker *portant* ‘yet’ in (108).

Although Richard does not explicitly state as such, his analysis gives us a clue into the nature of the *imparfait* morpheme. He extrapolates that the morpheme of the *imparfait* II has two defining features; it is adverbial-like and it has a discourse-pragmatic meaning:

En conclusion, on pourrait dire que les morphèmes d'imparfaits II ont syntaxiquement une valeur adverbiale. Cependant, ils n'ont nullement un statut d'adverbe. Bien qu'ils "laissent passer" le "m" de négation, ils restent, dans tous les autres cas, soudés au verbe et dépendants de lui; ils n'ont aucune liberté dans la phrase. Ils permettent de marquer discrètement l'unité du discours, dans ses articulations à la fois logiques et naturelles, de le raccrocher directement aux situations non exprimés sur lesquelles il se noue. Ces morphèmes d'imparfait donnent finalement au discours une sorte de cohésion ou de cohérence concrètes, faites d'enchaînements, de parallélismes et d'imbrications hiérarchisés. Ils sont un facteur de clarté et d'unité. [In conclusion, one could say that the imperfect II's morphemes have syntactically an adverbial value. However, they have in no way an adverbial status. Although they let the "m" of negation by, they stay, in all other cases, bonded to the verb and dependent on it; they have no freedom in the sentence. They discretely allow marking of the unity of the discourse, in enunciations at the same time logic and natural, directly connecting to linked implicit situations. In the end, these imperfect morphemes bring some sort of cohesion and concrete coherence to the discourse, made by linking, parallelism and hierarchical interweaving. They are a factor of clarity and unity] (p. 448)

I interpret Richard's first feature as intercategoriality in the sense that the *imparfait* morpheme straddles more than one linguistic category; the morpheme behaves syntactically like an adverb despite it no longer having adverbial status since it is syntactically restricted, that is, it is dependent upon and bonded to the verb. As for the second feature, we understand that the *imparfait* morpheme no longer has a concrete sense, but more of an abstract, relational meaning that aids in the cohesion and coherence of the discourse by referring to implicit situations.

Moving on to System B, repeated in (109) for convenience, Richard (1973) finds an aspectual difference between forms A and B:

(109) System B

	A	B
SG	<i>je paley</i>	<i>je palor</i>
PL	<i>je palen</i>	<i>je palen/palinor</i>

Specifically he argues that the difference between System B's A and B forms is that the latter denotes a culminated action (111) at the reference point, the time of speaking, whereas the former does not explicitly state that any end point has been reached at the reference point, (110):

Form A

- (110) *joe palin.*
we speak.1PL.IS
'we were in the middle of speaking.' (p. 449)

Form B

- (111) *jeo palinor.*
we speak.1PL.IL
'we were just speaking.' (p. 449)

It is not surprising that the IL instantiates a completed past event prior to a reference point (i.e., a perfective construal) since there are copious examples from French attesting the perfective reading of the *imparfait* e.g., *Son arrivé **surprenait** Pierre.* 'His arrival surprised Peter' (Brisard 2010: 493). Richard thus concludes that the A/B opposition is an opposition between an indefinite past and a definite one, as seen in (112):⁹¹

⁹¹ This type of opposition is reminiscent of the aspectual opposition between the *passé composé* and the *passé simple* in French.

- (112) *Imparfait* A = indefinite past
Imparfait B = definite past

Lastly, System C, repeated in (113) for convenience, is similar to Type B in that it is also delineated by an indefinite/definite opposition:

- (113) System C

	AI/BI	AII/BII
SG	<i>jæ paloey/palou</i>	<i>jæ paloeyto/paloto</i>
	I	II
PL	<i>jæ palen</i>	<i>jæ paleto</i>

The indefinite A forms are marked by the suffix *-oey* (114) whereas the definite B forms are marked by the suffix *-ou* or *-o* (115). Consider also the AII and BII forms, examples (116) and (117) respectively, which are derived from (114) and (115), respectively, by adding *or(es)*:

Form AI

- (114) *si n' evom pyoe j' ero puvoe...*
 if NEG have.3SG.IS.NEG rain.PP I have.1SG.COND can.PP
 'If it had not rained, I could have...' (p. 455)

Form BI

- (115) *si l' gra per ato ko tula.*
 if the grand father be.3SG.IS still here
 'If grandfather were still here.' (p. 455)

Form AII

- (116) *j' a n aretoeymzo tan.*
I it NEG wait.1SG.NEG.IL much
'I didn't wait much.' (p. 451)

Form BII

- (117) *i n' atom-to tule.*
he neg be.3SG.NEG-IL there
'he hadn't been/wasn't there.' (p. 451)

Richard maintains that the A forms refer to a process in development within an undefined interval of time (118); the B forms, on the other hand, make reference to a defined interval of time cut off from the present (119):

Form AII

- (118) *Joe n v a dmadomto tan; joe vloeyto*
I NEG you it ask.1SG.NEG.IL so-much I want.1SG.IL

solmon epar i po t petwe.
only learn.INF a little of patois
'I wasn't asking much of you; I only wanted to learn a little dialect.' (p. 451)

Form BII

- (119) *on' e toke e m vulan, ma j' n'*
one have.3SG.PRES knock.PP at my window but I NEG

am repodoe: joe vloto drume trakil.
have.3SG.PRES.NEG respond.PP I want.1SG.IL sleep.INF peacefully
'Someone knocked on my window, but I didn't respond: I wanted to sleep undisturbed.' (p. 452)

Even though Richard does not explicitly mention it, one has to assume that the Type C forms AII and BII, the “marked” *imparfait* forms with *-zo* (116) and *-to* (117) - (119), are similar to form II of Type A.

Importantly, Richard remarks on the diachronic origins of the *imparfaits lorrains*, explaining that, if we assume a common origin between all forms in the different systems, the aforementioned *imparfait* paradigms could have developed via two possible scenarios. In the first scenario, the unmarked form derives from source form A₁ and the marked form derives from source form A₂, schematized below in (120):

- (120) A₁ → I → unmarked
 A₂ → II → marked

Based on Richard’s proposal, the A₁ and A₂ forms in (120) presumably derive from the breakdown in the paradigmatic opposition between the A and B forms.

Il y aurait eu, selon cette hypothèse, affaiblissement de l’opposition primitive de type A/B, rupture de l’équilibre existant entre les deux formes fatalement rivales dans le discours... [According to this hypothesis, there would have been a weakening in the primitive opposition of the A/B type, a disruption in the existing equilibrium between the two fatally rival forms in the discourse...] (p. 455)

Based on this schema, the opposition I/II was fed by the breakdown of the A/B opposition. It is unclear, however, what the A form subscripts in (120) represent. Does the A₁ source derive from the original A form and the A₂ from the original B form? What is clear from (120) is that the I/II opposition originates from two related, but different source forms. To break it down further, the A₁ form continues unchanged as the unmarked form (e.g. *palo*) and the A₂ form develops into a marked form (e.g., *paloza*).

Once the marked form emerges, it could have then acquired a more adverbial meaning over time:

...corrélativement, les formes II raréfiées, avant de disparaître dans la bouche de nos patoisants moins âgés, ont pu acquérir – très naturellement – une valeur plus particulière, i.e. un contenu plus lexical (adverbial, cf. plus haut) et une plus grande expressivité. [...consequently, the scarcified II forms, before disappearing from the younger dialect speakers' mouths, could have acquired – very naturally – a more specific meaning, i.e. a more lexical content (adverbial, cf. from above) and more expressiveness]. (pp. 455-456)

Thus, Richard's hypothesis suggests that the development $A_2 \rightarrow II \rightarrow$ marked in (120) is the result of a degrammaticalization process (see Chapter 2) where the verbal affix has acquired a more independent status as an adverb. There are two major issues with such a hypothesis. First, since we do not know what A_1 and A_2 represent, we do not know what role, if any, the B form (e.g., *palinor*) plays in (120). Second, as previously stated in Chapter 2, the number of attested examples of grammaticalization far outweigh the number of attested examples of degrammaticalization (Heine 2003). Thus, a degrammaticalization process is a less likely scenario than the alternative – a grammaticalization process.

In light of these concerns, the second path in (121) seems like a more plausible explanation since it supports a grammaticalization pathway. In this schema, the erstwhile independent morpheme undergoes a grammaticalization process to create a novel form (e.g., B) that then becomes rivals with the more primitive form (e.g., A).

(121) $I_1 \rightarrow A$
 $II_2 \rightarrow B$

To break the above pathway down a bit more, the II form (e.g. *paloza*) derives from the fusion of the erstwhile temporal adverb *or(es)* to the imperfect verb and this new grammaticalized verbal form (i.e., B) enters into competition with the older inherited imperfect (i.e., A form) from which the new form derives. Thus, the pathway in (121) suggests that the erstwhile independent morpheme has been reinterpreted as part of the verb itself, a view that is in line with my own analysis. I give the following quote from Richard (1973) in support of the claim:

Les morphemes précités – sans doute indépendants à l’origine – auraient pu alors perdre leur liberté originelle par le fait d’une grammaticalisation et d’une sort de “monopolisation” verbales et ils auraient engendré dans certaines régions (ex. : Petitmont), des formes rivales des formes primitives sous les rapports morphologiques et aspectual. [The aforementioned morphemes – without a doubt originally independent – could have lost their original freedom due to grammaticalization and through a type of verbal “monopolization” and they could have, in certain regions, brought about rival forms from primitive forms through morphological and aspectual relationships] (p. 456)

In sum, Richard’s analysis is very informative since it is the first one to offer a more in-depth description of the post-verbal particle’s function as a type of pragmatic marker. While he mentions that a grammaticalization process took place, it is not enough to say that a grammaticalization occurred without examining the mechanisms and processes involved. For this reason, the development of the IL still remains unclear and deserves further investigation with respect to the processes and mechanisms outlined in Chapter 2.

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter I reviewed several studies on the IL; which, for the most part, can be divided into two camps. In the first camp, summarized in (122), scholars view the IL suffix, derived from Old French *or(es)*, as having been incorporated into the verb to create an entirely new paradigm (e.g., IL) that stands in paradigmatic opposition to an older imperfect form, the IS. Additionally, there are varying claims as to what the paradigmatic opposition signifies. The second camp, summarized in (123), privileges the view that *or(es)* is less affix-like and performs either a temporal (e.g., recency, anteriority) and/or a discourse-pragmatic (e.g., emphatic marker, pragmatic marker) function.

(122) Function of paradigmatic opposition in first camp

- a. Recent vs. distant past (Adam 1881; de Lazarque 1883; Lemasson 1927; Martin 1939; Aub-Büscher 1962)
- b. New vs. old information (Franz 1920)
- c. Definite past vs. indefinite past (Richard 1973)

(123) Function of *or(es)* in second camp

- a. Emphatic marker (Oberlin 1970[1775]; Jouve 1864)
- b. Marker of recency (Haillant 1885)
- c. Marker of anteriority (Hingre 1887; Lanher 2005)
- d. Pragmatic marker (Richard 1973)

While these previous studies give an in-depth introduction to the IL, and in particular the role that *or(es)* plays in the formation of the IL, they fail to give a more in-depth analysis of the IL in larger discourse contexts. Hence, a re-examination of the IL is needed.

CHAPTER 5

REVISITING THE *IMPARFAIT LORRAIN*

5.1 Introduction

As seen in Chapters 3 and 4, previous researchers have sought to understand the IL from a geographical and functional perspective. While this chapter does comment on the geographical distribution found in the texts under investigation, its main purpose is to provide an in-depth analysis of the various functions of the IL in light of a larger data set. By examining the IL form in larger discourse contexts, I set out to understand in finer detail the functions of the form as discussed in the previous chapter. What I find is that that the IL, and in particular post-verbal *or(es)*, exhibits functions as a temporal adverb (section 5.3.1), textual connective (section 5.3.2) and MP (section 5.3.3). Thus, I find that the IL spans the full cline where the basic, propositional meaning of *or(es)* has been backgrounded in favor of a more modal/discourse-functional meaning.

The chapter is organized as follows. In section 5.2 I discuss the IL with respect to its geographic distribution to give a glimpse of its spatial variation across Lorraine. The chapter's main focus is to showcase the different functions of the IL in different varieties of Lorrain (section 5.3). Finally, in section 5.4, I provide a summary of my findings and proposals.

5.2 Geographic distribution of the *imparfait lorrain*

Before I begin my analysis of the functions of the IL forms in the texts, a brief comment on the geographic distribution is necessary. As mentioned in Chapter 3, ten different variants of the IL are posited in the literature (Adam 1881). These variants are repeated below for convenience in (124). In the texts taken into consideration for the present study, I only found seven of the ten variants, which I have indicated in bold:

(124) IL variants in the present study

- a. **-or**
- b. **-zor**
- c. **-zo**
- d. -*zeur*
- e. **-zeu**
- f. **-zar**
- g. **-za**
- h. -*zooue*
- i. -*tor*
- j. **-to**

For ease of exposition, I group together *-zor* and *-zo* under *-zo(r)*, and *-zar* and *-za* under *-za(r)* to distinguish between five IL forms. Recall that previous studies have shown that the IL forms above have a wide geographic distribution across the region of Lorraine and even into Alsace. My findings show a similar distribution, summarized in Table 10 below:

Table 10: Geographic distribution of IL variants in the corpus

Form	Department	Region
<i>-or</i>	Bas-Rhin	Alsace
	Moselle	
	Meurthe-et-Moselle	Lorraine
	Vosges	
<i>-to</i>	Meuse	
	Meurthe-et-Moselle	Lorraine
	Vosges	
<i>-zo(r)</i>	Vosges	Lorraine
<i>-za(r)</i>	Moselle	
	Meurthe-et-Moselle	Lorraine
	Vosges	
<i>-zeu</i>	Vosges	Lorraine

In my study, I found the *-or* form to be present in both Alsace and Lorraine and to have four different orthographic variants, *-or*, *-ore*, *-orre* and *-our*. Specifically, it is found in the department of Bas-Rhin in Alsace and in the departments of Vosges, Meurthe-et-Moselle and Moselle in Lorraine. The *-to* form shows up in the departments of Meuse, Meurthe-et-Moselle and Vosges. The form in *-za* is linked to Meurthe-et-Moselle and Moselle; the form in *-zar* can be found in Meurthe-et-Moselle and Vosges. The forms in *-zor* and *-zeu* are only found in Vosges.

5.3 Functions of the *imparfait lorrain*

We will see that *or(es)*, in combination with an imperfect verb, is best characterized as having developed into a type of discourse-pragmatic particle referred to in the literature as a modal particle (MP). I draw upon Abraham's (1991b) description of MPs in German to give a clearer definition of their nature:

They [modal particles, SR] are akin to speaker-oriented units such as epistemics and deontics, yet much more specific than these: They make visible, by way of some specific illocutive force, what the speaker (user of the modal particle) deems adequate to fully disambiguate a certain prior or following text or discourse portion. In a way, M[odal]P[article]s can most adequately be described as functioning as fillers of what has been left enthymemic in the text or discourse portion in question. In other words, M[odal]P[article]s signal gaps in the argumental configuration of a prior text portion and partly indicate how a missing argument is to be reconstructed by the hearer or reader. (p. 333)

In my data, I find that as an MP, *or(es)* evidences traces of its earlier and more conceptually concrete meanings such as temporal and logical connective meanings. Precisely, I find that *or(es)* can have temporal readings equivalent to English *now* and *then*. Furthermore, I find that these temporal readings have extended into the non-temporal domain to express logical connection between propositions. Additionally, *or(es)*, having developed into an MP, has acquired modal overlays that make reference to the speaker's/hearer's beliefs. Before I begin my analysis, I would like to point out that the texts from which the data are culled are dated primarily from the late nineteenth century to the mid-twentieth century.

5.3.1 TEMPORAL

Given that the original meaning of *or(es)* is temporal in nature, we would expect to find examples in which this is the primary interpretation. Indeed, I find instances in which *or(es)* can express either a ‘now’ or ‘then’ reading. Notice that *or(es)*, represented orthographically as affixed to the verb as *-zor* in (125), is compatible with a distal ‘then’ meaning that serves to highlight the successive nature of events:

- (125) *E lè chèpelle y motton l' èfant dèssu lé fosse di*
 at the chapel he put.3SG.PRES the child on-top the tomb of

Bienheureux; lé poro s' teninzor dé chèque côté,
 Bienheureux the parents REFL hold.3PL.IL of each side

prinzor bén'opouè.
 pray.3PL.IL well.at.point.

‘At the chapel, he [the priest] set the child on top of Bienheureux’s tomb; the parents **then** stood on either side, (they) **then** prayed right on the spot.’ (*Lo Mirèque*, LPL, 1905, p. 347)

The reason for overtly marking the temporal relation *-zor* ‘then’ on the verbs *se tenir* ‘hold’ and *prier* ‘pray’ may be to emphasize the immediate succession of events. From the context, we understand the narrator’s use of *-zor* as ‘then’ to signal to the reader that the event at which the parents stood on either side of their child occurred during the interval of time immediately following the interval of time in which the child is placed on the tomb. Furthermore, the interval of time in which the parents prayed follows the time at which they stood on either side. Thus, these two actions are perceived, in sequential order, as beginning shortly after the child was placed on the tomb. As a consequence, temporal progression is inferred between the two situations. In this way, there is an iconic effect in which the narrative sequencing matches the event sequencing. Furthermore, this

example is in line with Hingre's (1886) observations that *or(es)* is in fact an extrinsic particle (i.e., not a verbal inflection) to specify sequencing of events.

Looking next at *-za*, I propose that it is performing a similar function as *-zor* in (125) in that it refers to a previously introduced reference time. Consider the example in (126) from the text from northern Meurthe-et-Moselle (Val de Faulx). Note that the post-verbal negative marker *m(e)* (< Old French *mie* 'crumb') interpolates between the verbal stem and *-za*. This suggests that the verb and the particle maintain some autonomy:

- (126) *Lé Thalie n' atôt -me ca prate; elle pitalot, elle*
the Thalie NEG be.3SG.IS NEG still ready she shuffle.3SG.IS she
tripotôt, et j' te remats di bô dans l' foné
dabble.3SG.II and I you put.again.1SG.PRES of.the wood in the kiln
po faire cueure lé sope, et ç' atôt les chattons que
for make.INF cook.INF the soup and it be.3SG.IS the kittens that
n' avît-m-za zoutte laicé, et ç' atôt les ohés que
NEG have.3PL.NEG-IL their milk and it be.3SG.IS the birds that
n' avînt point d' eaûe dans zoutte botaille, et ç' ast lé
NEG have.3PL.IS NEG of water in their bottle and it be.3SG.PRES the
coverasse que n' avôt-me ca mingi, et ç' ast les
hen that NEG have.3SG.IS-NEG still eat.PP and it be.3SG.PRES the
porattes et les névés que sont restés devant l' heuhh
leeks and the turnips that be.3PL.PRES stay.PP before the hutch
su' lé fenéte...
under the window

'Thalie was not yet ready, she shuffled and dabbled about, I will put some wood in the kiln on the fire for you to cook the soup, and there were the kittens who did not have their milk then/at that time, the birds who didn't have any water in their feeder and the brooding hen who still hadn't eaten yet, the leeks and the turnips sat in front of the hutch under the window...' (*Lé Thalie*, LPL, 1928, p. 639)

The scene is recounted through the narrator's eyes who lists the household chores that the main character, Thalie, has failed to do at a contextually salient reference point. The presence of the negative phrasal adverb *ne me ca* 'not yet' indicates that the state of Thalie not being ready began at some point prior to the reference point, the current time of the narrative, and continues to be true at this reference time.⁹² The events of shuffling and dabbling about are construed as overlapping with the time in which Thalie was not ready. Following the introduction of background information in which Thalie is shuffling and dabbling about, expressed in the past imperfective *pitalot* and *tripotôt*, respectively, the narrator appears to "break" the narration by interjecting their own thoughts, *et j'te remats di bô dans l'foné* 'I'll put some more wood on the fire'. The narrator proceeds to pick up the narration exactly where they left off in listing the unaccomplished chores, understood to hold throughout the reference time. The state of the kittens not having milk overlaps with the reference time and is made more explicit by the addition of *-za* 'then/at that time'. In contrast to the negative phrasal adverb *ne me ca* 'not yet', which serves to focalize on the continuity of a state of affairs at a reference point, the post-verbal particle *-za* serves to localize a state of affairs with respect to the reference point.

A similar function is found to be compatible with the *plus-que parfait* form in (127). This example is extracted from a text in which three mayors from different communes vie for a *sablière* 'sandpit' that has yet to be assigned to a specific commune. As a way to settle the debate concerning the sandpit, the three men make up truths about a starving wolf that they see next to the sandpit. The mayor who comes up with the best truth "wins" the sandpit. The narrator addresses the mayor of *Gerbév'lé* (Gerbéville) first who comes up with his truth. The narrator then addresses the mayor of Moyen:

⁹² *Ca* 'still, yet' also has a modal component in that *ne me ca* 'not yet' marks the narrator's belief that Thaly should have been ready at this point in time in the narrative and that the state of her not being ready has continued longer than expected.

- (127) *Et votte toh, mère de Moyen. L' avauza évu lo temps*
 and your turn, mayor of Moyen he have.3SG.IL have.PP the time
- de réfléchi et y dit âssi vite : « Le loup a*
 of think and he say.3SG.PRES enough quickly the wolf have.3SG.PRES
- mangé plus de viande crue que de viande cuite.*
 eat.PP more of meat raw than of meat cooked
 'Your turn, mayor of Moyen. He had had then the time to think and said rather
 quickly: "The wolf has eaten more raw meat than cooked meat.' (*Au Conseil de*
Frimbo, LPL, 1925, p. 84)

The reader understands that *-za* refers to the time period right after the narrator utters *Et votte toh, mère de Moyen* 'your turn mayor of Moyen' and that during that time the mayor was able to think of his response. Although *-za* is orthographically represented as affixed to the *plus-que-parfait* form, I assume that the particle is still optional, as evidenced by its omissibility in (128) in the lines of the text following (127):

- (128) *Les douse àte ont étéu aubligi de reconnahhe que*
 the two others have.3PL.PRES be.PP obligate.PP of recognize.INF that
- j'avau d' jiégni et let sablière et étéu adjujisse.*
 i have.1SG.IS win.PP and the sandpit have.3SG.PRES be.PP adjoin.PP
- et Fraïmbo.*
 to Fraimbois
 'The other two were obligated to recognize that I had won and the sandpit was
 granted to Fraimbois.' (*Au Conseil de Frimbo*, LPL, 1925, p. 84)

Lastly, in the following Barrois texts, *-to* is best interpreted as 'at that time/moment' in the stative (129) and focalized progressive (130) contexts:

- (129) *L' Janot qu' traulô-to d' avoteure Pou r'massi dos*
the John who wander.3SG-IL of adventure to pick some
fawines et dos meüilres L é r'brâté avo s'
beechnuts and some blackberries he be.3SG.PRES come.back.PP with his
fleuiltot.
flageolet
'John who was at the time/moment wandering about on an adventure to pick some
beechnuts and blackberries doubled-back with his flageolet.' (*Chanson de village*,
MSAL, 1894, p. 357)
- (130) *elle trouvê le Zidore à plat vatre qui, diso -t-y,*
she find.3SG.PAST the Zidore on flat stomach who says.3SG.IS he
cherchôto ine pîce de vingt francs qu' avo glissé
look.for.3SG.IL a piece of twenty francs that has.3SG.IS slide.PP
atur so deuilles.
between his fingers
'She found Zidore flat on his stomach who was at the time/moment, as he said,
looking for a 20 franc coin that had slipped between his fingers.' (*Lé Crayotte dul*
Zidore, LPL, 1930, p. 312)

In (129), the action of John wandering about is conceptualized as setting a stative background for the event of doubling back expressed by the *passé composé* form of *é r'brâté* 'be.3SG.PRES come.back.PP'. The state of wandering is currently underway in the narrative and *-to* picks out a specific temporal reference '(right) then' or 'at that moment'. A similar reading is available in the next example: the activity of Zidore searching for twenty francs is understood to be underway at the exact time that the subject of the sentence *elle* 'she' finds Zidore on his stomach.

5.3.2 TEMPORAL AND RESULTATIVE

As can be seen below, in (131), *-zor* may be interpreted as temporal ‘then’. Interestingly, a non-temporal interpretation is also available in which *-zor* is equivalent to standard French *donc/alors/ainsi* ‘thus, therefore, so, as a result’ and serves to express a logical relation of result between two propositions:

- (131) *Fifine aussi é plé sé quematte mais a voit-zor*
 Fifine also have.3SG.pres peel.PP her apple but one see.3SG-IL
- lo jo é trévî lé plate.*
 the striation across the peel.
 ‘Fifine also peeled her apple, but we were able to see **then/at that time/as a result** the cuts along the peel.’ (*Lo Meriège de Groïis Minique*, LPL, 1920, p. 182)

In this story, there is a comparison set up between the way in which Fifine has peeled her apple and the way in which her two sisters peeled apples in the immediately preceding clause; Titine who *é modu dina das lé siune évo sis bians dats* ‘bit into her apple with her white teeth’ and *Toinette é sbieuchi so frut é féant dis plates comme des bâchas* ‘Toinette squared her fruit so that the peel came off in big log-like chunks’. The narrator, who is describing the past apple-peeling event, relates the news of Fifine peeling her apple at the current time of the narrative. Thus, the narrator is speaking about past events in a present context. From the context, we understand that the temporal adverb *-zor* marks an overlap relation between the past events of Fifine peeling her apple and of seeing the knife markings on the apple’s peel. Thus, it can be interpreted as ‘then/at that time’. I also suggest that *-zor* fulfills another function as a marker of result. It is clear that Fifine’s apple-peeling technique, which is much more refined than her sisters’, causes the apple’s peel to stay intact.

5.3.3 MODAL

In the absence of textual support for the functions of a temporal adverb or logical connector, an modal reading equivalent to the English epistemic adverbs ‘actually, indeed’ is most appropriate, as evidenced with the pluperfect in (132):

- (132) *Quand lô curé èrriveut, évo sô fourniment mo gaillard*
 when the priest arrive.3SG.PAST with his last.rites our old.man
- été zor r'venù d' sé féblesse et poiti è sè*
 be.3SG IL come.back.PP from his sickness and left.PP to his
- b'sonne dô lè montaine.*
 Need/duty from the mountain.
- ‘When the priest arrived with his last rites, our old man had (actually, indeed) gotten over his illness and had left for his work on the mountain.’ (*Lè Sacrements*, LPL, 1905, p. 347)

With the use of the past perfect form *été r'venù* ‘had gotten over’ in the main clause, the event of the old man being healed (i.e., event 1 or e1) is understood to take place before the contextually relevant event (the priest’s arrival, i.e., event 2 or e2) specified by the *quand* ‘when’ clause. Furthermore, the reference point of the ‘when’ clause serves as the current perspective of the narrative. For *-zor* to receive a ‘now’ or ‘at that moment’ reading, it must coincide (i.e., overlap) with the current perspective of the narrative, the reference point introduced by the ‘when’ clause. However, this is not the case since *-zor* is modifying the past perfect event, the reference point of which is situated at a time prior to the current time of the narrative. For *-zor* to be understood as ‘then’ or ‘at that moment’, the past perfect event or e2 modified by *-zor* must continue into a reference time established in the prior text, but this is not the case either because there is no such point in time established. Thus, a temporal reading is excluded. A non-temporal connective reading is also excluded since there is no apparent (explicit or implicit) logical

relationship between the priest's arrival (e2) and the man's getting over his sickness (e1). In light of these observations, the most amenable interpretation is that the reader assumes that the old man is still not well, however, the narrator corrects the reader's incorrect assumption by marking the assertion with *-zor*; the old man is better and not only is he better, but he is in such good health that he can go back to work.

Another possible interpretation is that *-zor* is equivalent to standard French *déjà* 'already'. First, *déjà* 'already' is compatible in past perfect contexts and instantiates a recent past reading, which is possible in this context. In the literature on 'already', Löbner (1989) shows that German *schon* 'already' is understood to imply that the transition point between two state of affairs of opposite polarity (*p* and not-*p*) is close to a reference point due to Grice's maxim of relevance. For our purposes, the two states of affairs are being healed (*p*) and not being healed (not-*p*) and the reference point is the time at which the priest arrives to treat the sick man. From the story we know that the priest, having gotten word about the sick man, immediately left to administer him the last rites. However, by the time the priest arrived, the old man was healed, suggesting that the time in which he was healed occurred during an interval of time just before the priest arrived. Thus, the use of *-zor*, like German *schon*, implicates that the transition point between two states of affairs (i.e., not being healed and being healed) is close to the reference point of the priest's arrival. Second, it is also recognized that 'already' may express speaker evaluations. For instance, Garrido (1992) claims that *ya* 'already' in Spanish express a speaker's subjective attitude because the change from one phase to another is linked to speaker expectations. When a speaker uses *ya* 'already' in (133), they assert that a change has taken place against the assumption that it did not:

- (133) *Maria vive aqui ya.*
 ‘Mary **already** lives here.’ (assumption: Mary does not live here yet) (Garrido 1992: 358)

These counterfactual uses may acquire modal overtones when beliefs, not facts, are subject to change.

To draw out the modal interpretation, consider a few more parallel examples. In (134), *-zor* serves to emphasize the speaker’s commitment to the proposition:

- (134) *Hà je lo sèvisor bin que cé viro d’ inlet!*
 aha I it know.1SG.IL well that it go.3SG.COND from in.that
 ‘Aha! I **knew** indeed that it would turn out like this!’ (*Le Berger de Rapey*, 1907, LPL, p. 547)

In (134) the speaker, a *berger* ‘shepherd’ presumes knowledge on behalf of the listener, the Emperor, and denies it with his assertion, indicated by *bin*, equivalent to Standard French *bien* ‘well, indeed’. While co-occurrence with an already modal term such as *bin* may seem redundant, the addition of *-zor* clues in the hearer to the speaker’s own awareness, highlighting the fact that the knowledge has really taken hold of the speaker. Because the speaker’s assertion is contemporaneous with the present time of the narrative *-zor* could be interpreted as a temporal where the knowledge has taken hold of the speaker now. However, a modal reading wherein *-zor* reinforces the speaker’s commitment to the truth of the proposition seems more appropriate in the context of the verb of cognition *savoir* ‘know’. In this way, *-zor* appears to index a shift in speaker perception, similar to what Schifffrin (1987) refers to as an “ideational shift”. The shift might be the underlying reason why *-zor* is present with the first person singular in (134) but not in the *berger*’s utterance with the second person plural (135):

- (135) *Eca vo, Sire, je vo voi ca su vote rousin blanc;*
 Still you, Sire, I you saw.3SG.PRES still on your warhorse white
- Vo n' evin me l' ere cauyon non pu!*
 you NEG have.2PL.IS NEG the air cowardly not more
 You again, Sir, I see you again on your white warhorse; You don't/didn't seem
 afraid either! (*Le Berger de Rapey*, LPL, 1907, p. 546)

Consider another modal use in (136) where *-za* is used to amplify the speaker's surprise when he sees an unexpected feast:

- (136) *Matin! fat -i en wèiant le fricàt, ç'ast lè nace;*
 Morning do.3SG.PRES he in see.GER the food it is the wedding
- on dirôt que j' atins-za ettendus.*
 one say.3SG.COND that we be.1PL-IL expect.PP
 'Wow! he says in seeing the food, it's a wedding feast; one could/might say that
 we **were** expected.' (*Lè Pette don jalat*, LPL, 1927, p. 179)

Minique, the speaker, and his son Alexander are forced to spend the night at the Grosjean Inn without having made prior lodging arrangements. While Minique unhitches their horse, La Grise, Alexander heads to the inn and finds that a "chicken" (in actuality it is a ferret that *la maîtresse* 'the owner' prepared the day before) is roasting in a large pot and is ready to eat. Dying of hunger, Alexander quickly eats one of the "chicken" legs while waiting for his father. Upon Minique's entrance, he compares the scene to a wedding feast, uttering (140). From this example, we understand that the speaker, Minique, makes reference to an implicit expectation that no food would have been prepared in advance given that he and his son, Alexander, did not give notice of their late arrival at the inn. Because what is asserted runs counter to what is presupposed on the part of the speaker, *-za* in conjunction with the past-tense form carries the pragmatic meaning that the speaker is surprised to see the copious amounts of food despite the expectation

otherwise. The appearance of the post-verbal particle in this context may be explained by the speaker's need to overtly highlight the positive state of affairs, which in turn serves to heighten the speaker's commitment to truth of the proposition. Thus, the post-verbal particle may be seen as a way to emphasize the speaker's disbelief/surprise of the situation. Although we cannot rule out a recent past reading here since this state of being expected began right before Minique and Alexander reach the inn, the modal reading is prevalent in collocation with the epistemic clause *on dirait que* 'one could say that', which points to the speaker's knowledge state about the truth of the proposition.

A modal reading is found in another context to emphasize a speaker's state of disbelief. In (137), the speaker has just finished drinking a jug of water after spending all day working in the fields:

- (137) *Ayant vidé une première cruche à la cave, à la rigolôte,*
have.GER empty.PP a first jug in the cellar at the fun
- il en remontait une seconde en disant : "Cré bon*
he some come.back.3SG.IS a second in say.GER believe.2SG.IMP good
- Dieu, j'avôza sô... cé vè jé mieux... é*
God I have.1SG.IL thirsty it go.3SG.PRES already better and
- c't'houre, on vè dejuner..."*⁹³
now we go.3SG.PRES eat.INF
- '...he went to the cellar with a little jug. Having drank one jug first in the cellar, laughing, he came back up with a second one, saying: "Good God, I **was** thirsty...I'm doing much better and now, let's eat..." (Vacances, DSNS, 1926, p. 179)

By uttering (137) the speaker recounts that he is no longer as thirsty at the moment of the utterance as he was at a prior time. The speaker confirms that his actual level of thirst was

⁹³ No Standard French translation accompanied the text.

much more pronounced than previously thought, setting up a contrast between a prior presupposition and the assertion. In other words, the speaker was unaware of the advanced degree of his thirst at a prior moment and only truly comes to understand it after the fact because he has evidence to prove it (i.e., he drank an entire jug of water). Given this observation, the speaker emphasizes that the knowledge of his past state has really taken hold, strengthening the degree of commitment to his assertion. The *za*-modified utterance can be paraphrased as ‘it really is the case now that I was thirsty before’, reinforcing the speaker’s surprise at having been so thirsty in the past. Although a recent past reading equivalent to ‘just now’ is also amenable in this context since the past state of being thirsty ended at a point immediately prior to the speaker’s utterance, the modal reading is more prevalent given that the overall message that the speaker is communicating is his state of disbelief.

Additionally, *-za* may intensify a negative state of affairs. Take for example the following negative contexts with simple (i.e., pre-verbal *ne*) (138) and bi-partite negation (i.e., *ne...mie/pas/point*) (139):

- (138) *Mâ comme y n' sévau za lire, il lé bayeu â fe don*
 But as he NEG know.3SG IL read.INF he it gave.3SG.IS to son of
Loua qu' ateu tot sévant report qui n' évau étu et
 Loua who be.3SG.IS all educate.PP because NEG have.3SG.IS be.PP to
l' acaule jusqu'et deye-hieut ans.
 the school up to eighteen years.
 'But since/because he [Chan] **did not** know how to read, he gave it [the letter] to
 Loua's son who was very educated because he had been to school until he was
 eighteen years old.' (*Quand y haille tortot haille*, LPL, 1909, p. 313)
- (139) *Mais lé pauvre femme, que ne s' emberressau-me-za po si*
 but the poor woman that NEG REFL embarrass.3SG-NEG-IL for so
pau, li répond: "Oi, i n' sont -me ouettes, j'
 little him respond.3SG.PRES oh they NEG be.3PL.PRES NEG dirty I
ans ca bu dedans hier."
 have.3SG.PRES still drink.PP inside yesterday
 'But the poor woman [Joujette], how she **wasn't** embarrassed by such a small
 thing, responded: "Oh, they aren't dirty, I only drank out of them yesterday.'
 (*Joujette*, LPL, 1928, p. 265)

In (138), Chan, the referent to which *il* 'he' refers, receives a letter from his son who is a soldier. I would like to note first that while a temporal reading equivalent to 'but since he didn't know how to read then' is possible, it is unlikely. The temporal reading implies that at the time Chan received the letter, he was unable to read but has since learned how to read at the time the story is told. Thus, there is an implication that that at the present telling of the story, Chan is no longer illiterate, which is an unlikely scenario. A more plausible interpretation is that the MP serves an emphatic function in which it serves to foreground the negative state of affairs.

The *mais* 'but'-sentence, in which the MP is found, contradicts the hearer's implicit inference that someone who receives a letter knows how to read. The contrast evoked by *mais* is related to two states of affairs, knowing how to read and not knowing

how to read. Thus, what is at issue is the polarity of the state of affairs. The narrator asserts the negative state of affairs to update and correct the hearer's incorrect information. The mere presence of the post-verbal particle appears to enhance the negative force of the assertion. Crucially, the narrator is interjecting his or her own beliefs into the story, which is in contrast to (139) in which the speaker expressed his own belief about the situation.

A similar reading is found in (140) where a contrast is set up between the actual state of affairs (i.e., Joujette has at no time in the past been embarrassed for serving dirty glasses to guests) and a presupposed state of affairs (i.e., serving a dirty glass to a guest should be grounds for embarrassment). By stating the negative assertion, the narrator highlights/focuses on the negative polarity of the current state of affairs. The narrator once again updates the common ground with the correct information and explicitly focuses on the polarity of the sentence via overt marking.

It is worthwhile to note that while the particle *-za* has a somewhat flexible position; it can occur to the left of the post-verbal negator *pu* as shown in (140), but still remains in the expected post-verbal position:

- (140) *Comme l' y avo demouere hieu jo, quand l' e*
 as he there have.3SG.IS stay.PP eight days when he be.3SG.PRES

*reveni e Frambo, i ne savo-za pu lo patois.*⁹⁴
 come.back.PP to Frambois he NEG know.3SG-IL NEG the dialect
 'As he had stayed there for eight days, when he came back to Frambois, he no
 longer knew the dialect/did not know the dialect anymore.' (*Le Rateau*, DSNS,
 1926, p. 67)

⁹⁴ No Standard French translation accompanied this text.

In this story, a *patoisant* ‘dialect speaker’ has been away from his native village for eight days. At the contextually salient reference time introduced by *quan* ‘when’, we understand that the polarity of the actual state of affairs is negative; the *patoisant* cannot speak the local dialect. That the *patoisant* cannot speak the local dialect at reference time implies that the opposite state of affairs was true before reference time. In other words, he could speak the local dialect at a time before his return. This could be interpreted as a result/conclusion relation; the *patoisant* could no longer speak the dialect as a result of staying eight days away from home. But it seems unreasonable that someone could forget a language in eight days. Following this logic, there is an implicit assumption that it would take longer than eight days to forget a language. It seems reasonable to conclude that *-za* in combination with negative *ne plus* contributes an additional emphasis to the negative state of affairs.

-To can also be used to express a modal meaning, (141); take for example the continuative context where a state or event beginning in the past occurs up to the present moment of the narrative:

- (141) *Noeïe ! véci Noueïe Qu’ost do ben’ errivé ! Depeuil pô*
 Noel here Noel that be.3SG.PRES thus well arrive Since more

d’ daw mil ans j’ trouvins-to l’ tein maw
 of two thousand years we find.2PL-IL the time much

grand!

grand

‘Noel, Noel has thus indeed come! For more than two thousand years, we have (**truly**) found the season/time very nice.’ (*Noël d’Ormançon*, MSAL, 1894, p. 340)

Specifically, the narrator conveys that the state of enjoying *l'tein* 'Christmas time' extends throughout the period *depeuil pû d'daw mil ans* 'for more than two thousand years' or that it merely falls within that period and continues up until the present moment of the narrative. There is the excitement of Christmas having come and the following sentence elaborates upon the long-standing feelings that despite the length of time, the speaker still finds Christmas time to be exciting. Thus, *-to* highlights the positive polarity of the sentence.

A second interpretation is also available. The narrator conveys that the state of enjoying Christmas time extends throughout the period *depeuil pû d'daw mil ans* 'for more than two thousand years' or that it merely falls within that period. It is plausible that *-to* takes on a meaning of 'up to now' in combination with a durative adverbial phrase. Thus, the IL reinforces a durative reading of the situation under discussion and may be paraphrased as 'we have been finding the time very grand (up to) now.'

Because of the particle's polyfunctionality, ambiguity arises and in certain cases it is particularly difficult to discern a predominant function of the particle. Ambiguity is to be expected in grammaticalization and the data in (141) may very well represent a "bridging context" (Heine 2002), a crucial context in semantic change where a new meaning (i.e., target meaning) develops through inference, creating the seed for grammaticalization to occur. Such a bridging context is illustrated in (142) where *-zor* can be interpreted as temporal or non-temporal:

- (142) *Mai Coulai, n' este meu vû Inq des Ros si*
 But Nicholas NEG be.2SG.PRES NEG see.PP one of.the kings so

caimu, Et qu ato zor ca pu nor qu ijn cremet,
 tired/worn out and who be.3SG IL still more black than a trammel

La bin lou temps que son visage n' esme lévé;
 There well long time that his face NEG be.3SG.PRES.NEG wash.PP
 'But Nicholas, you have not seen/didn't see, one of the kings so worn out, who
 was **now/therefore/(indeed)** even darker/blacker than a fireplace trammel, it had
 been a long time since he had washed/cleaned his face... (Noël lorrain, LPL,
 1909, p. 774)

In this story, the narrator recounts firsthand the events of witnessing the Three Wise Men pass by on their way to visit the baby Jesus at the current time of the narrative. The narrator remarks upon the appearance of one the Kings. We can see that the combination of the additive conjunct *et* 'and' and *-zor* with the gradable predicate *pu nor* 'darker' further elaborates upon the king's appearance. We know that the meaning of 'now' is admissible since there is a temporal overlap relation between an eventuality and a contextually salient time that serves as the current perspective (i.e., the utterance time or a previously introduced reference time) (Kamp & Reyle 1993; Lee & Choi 2008; Ritz, Dench, & Caudal 2012). *-Zor* like *now* in English marks the overlap relation between the time at which the narrator sees the king under discussion pass by and the present time of the narrative, which serves as the current perspective. The temporal adverb locates the past imperfective state denoted by *ato* 'be' at speech time.

However, *-zor* is amenable to an interpretation as a logical connector since it could also indicate that the state of the king's dirty face is a consequence of being weary from traveling a great distance and not having the time, energy or means to wash himself. Equally possible is that *-zor* in (142) has a modal interpretation, that is, it serves to encode the speaker's attitude/beliefs toward the proposition. The narrator regards the

degree of the subject's coloring as unexpected - encoded by the scalar additive focus particle *ca* 'even' immediately in combination with the comparative form *pu nor* 'darker, blacker'. The scalar additive focus particle *ca* 'even' adds another alternative to an implicit alternative, characterizing the predicate as ranking higher on a scale of blackness with respect to a standard - the fireplace trammel. Thus, the narrator regards the degree of the subject's coloring as unexpected since it is unlikely that someone is darker than a fireplace trammel, a very dark tool since its primary use is to raise and lower a pot over a fire.

In such a context of counter-expectation, *-zor* takes on a more epistemic meaning to confirm the speaker's belief in the face of doubt and is equivalent to the standard French *bien* 'indeed'. That *-zor* could take on more epistemic values is corroborated by the fact that we see a similar pattern for English *actually* which was borrowed from the French temporal adverb *actuel* 'of the moment' in the fourteenth century. In the following example from the seventeenth century, the VP internal adverb of manner *actually* can be interpreted as 'actively', 'at that time' or 'really' through an invited inference of reality:

- (143) I know the King is my Sovereign, and I know my duty to Him, and I would have ventured my Life for any thing, it should have been to serve Him, I know it is his due, and I owed all I had in the World to him: But tho' I could not fight for him my self, my Son did; he was actually [sic] in Arms on the King's side in this Business; I instructed him always in Loyalty, and sent him thither; it was I that bred him up to fight for the King.
(1685 Lisle, 123C1 [Traugott & Dasher 2002: 169–170])

When the particle is preceded by an explicit reference time, temporal and non-temporal readings are equally available making it difficult to distinguish which reading the speaker intended, as evidenced in (144):

- (144) *J' ai sti vo lé cinq oure Fâre in to*
 I have.1SG.PRES be.PP towards the five hours do/make.INF a walk
- dô neu mouè, Quéri dé fiô ou don dé poure; mâ*
 in our garden search.INF some flowers or well some pears but
- céte é n' y ouvouzeu pouè.*
 indeed it NEG there have.3SG.IL NEG
 'Around five o'clock I had been on a walk in our garden searching for some
 flowers or even better some pears; but clearly there were not any there **then/(at
 all).**' (*Po Cicile*, BSPV, 1893, p. 142)

In the first reading, *-zeu* functions as a temporal anaphor; it preserves the previous reference time *lé cinq oure* 'at five o'clock' introduced in the discourse and is paraphrasable by 'then'. Thus, we understand that the narrator did not find any flowers or pears during the time period established in the previous sentence. In the second reading, *-zeu* bears an emphatic reading in combination with the post-verbal item *pouè* 'point' (< Latin *punctu(m)* 'point') that strengthens the negation. The contrastive context introduced by the adversative connector *mâ* 'but' and the adversative epistemic adverb *céte* 'certainly, indeed' make reference to and refute a previous presupposition that one would find some flowers and pears at the reference time. In such a highly contrastive context, the temporal reading is backgrounded in favor of an emphatic one that intensifies the negative assertion.

Another example of *-za* serving a non-temporal and/or temporal function can be seen in (145) from the *Parabole de l'enfant prodigue* representative of the speech in Meurthe-et-Moselle (Vaudemont).

(145) *Ce q l' aiant bie fachi, I n' vlome za atret*
 It that it have.GER well mad.PP he NEG want.3SG.NEG IL enter.INF

da lè majon: mès so père s atet fue po la
 in the house but his father REFL be.3SG.IS leave.PP for him

priet.

beg.INF

‘This having infuriated him [the older son], he did **not** want to go back to the house (**then**): so his father went out to plead with him. (*Parabole de l’enfant prodigue*, line 28, p. 26)

This example relates how the prodigal son’s brother becomes angry upon hearing the news that his brother has returned after a long time away. The father, wanting to celebrate the prodigal son’s return, pleads with his second son to celebrate despite the son’s anger. In (145), *-za* points to presupposed information that is opposite to what is asserted (i.e., it is the case that the son wants to go back to the house), emphasizing the negative polarity of the assertion. Although a modal reading is predominant, a temporal ‘then’ reading is at least possible. The negated state of affairs in which the son did not want to return to the house overlaps with the previously introduced reference time in which a party was underway at the house, as indicated by the past imperfective form. If we look back in the narrative, we can see that *-za* serves to link the time at which the son did not want to go back into the house with the time at which he hears noise indicating a party from within the house from a preceding line in the text.

Up to this point, the texts discussed have attested few tokens of the post-verbal particle. However, there are texts in which the particle evidences a much higher frequency than we would expect. Take for instance the following examples from *L’Méd’cié maugré li* ‘The Doctor In Spite of Himself’, the famous comedic play by

Molière, translated into Barrois.⁹⁵ In this scene, Scene 1 of Act 1, we open on Sganarelle (S), and his wife, Martine (M), in the middle of an argument, the topic of which is Sganarelle's incompetence, namely that he spends all of their money on food and drink. During their argument, it comes to light that Martine is regretful of the day that she married Sganarelle because he has become a drunk. For reasons of space, I only present the lines of text in which *-to* is present. Note the over-abundance of *-to* forms (bolded) in comparison to the IS, the imperfect forms without the particle (underlined).

- (146) S: *L' Arestotte i disô qu' ine foume l' atô-**to** pû*
the Aristotle he say.3SG.IS that a woman she be.3SG-IL more
*pis que l' diâle: l' avô-**to** maw râjeun'h.*
worse than the devil he has.3SG-IL much reason
‘Aristotle said that a woman was much worse than the devil: he was right indeed.’
- (147) S: *Et qu' savôî tou s' catonnet cheu l' bout de s' doïe?*
and who know.3SG.IS all his alphabet on the end of his finger
‘And who knew all his alphabet on the end of his fingers?’
- (148) M: *Ah! la, la, l' mawdè joue que ç' atô-**to** deun'h que j'*
oh la la the wretched day that it be.3SG-IL then that I
mâ mérié avo ti!
me marry.1SG.PAST with you
‘Oh la la, what a wretched day it was when I got married to you!’/‘It was the worst day when I got married to you!’

⁹⁵ The play, *L'Méd'cié malgré li*, was first performed in 1778 by inhabitants of Barrois honoring the marriage of J. Brigeat de Lambert, an officer in the Royal Navy, and Gabrielle de la Morre (Fourier de Bacourt 1906). There is no information given about who translated the play from French to Barrois.

- (149) S: *A rein'h d' tan'h j' atoïe-to fouteu.*
 in nothing of time I be.1SG-IL damn.PP
 'In hardly any/no time I was damned.'
- (150) M: *T' meritoïe-to da n' aoui ieune coume mi?*
 you deserve.2SG-IL of some have.INF one like me
 'Were you deserving of having someone like me?'/ 'Did you deserve to marry someone like me?'
- (151) M: *Qu' mé von' deu j'quà l' laïe qu' j avins-to.*
 who me sell.3SG.PAST up-to the bed that we have.1PL-IL
 'Who even sold our bed out from under me.'
 (*L'Méd'cié maugré li*, LPL, 1906, pp. 312 – 313)

Given the high frequency in the text, the IL appears to be a salient and very well developed feature of Lorrain French by the late eighteenth century. Stereotypical use (i.e., the use of IL may have been indicative of uneducated speech) for comedic effect may be a plausible reason for the increased use of the IL in this text,⁹⁶ but because we do not know who translated the text into Barrois, the reason for which the IL occurs with exaggerated frequency from a language-external perspective must remain speculative in nature.

If we turn to language-internal factors, a well-known tendency observed in language is for emphatic elements to lose their relevance from over-use (Dahl 2001). If the MP has indeed devalued over time due to over-use, it seems reasonable to conclude that there are instances where no functional difference exists between imperfect forms with the particle and without the particle, suggesting that the imperfect forms where the particle is present is essentially in free variation with imperfect forms without the particle.

⁹⁶ This observation is in line with socio-historical studies (Lodge 1991, 1996) showing how authors who were not themselves vernacular speakers represented vernacular features with exaggerated frequency to depict uneducated, lower-class speech.

Take for instance the following examples in which there appears to be free variation of the IL form *v'nisor* (153) and IS form *v'ni* in (152) attested in another text from Vosges, *Lo Soudère qu'vet o perédis* 'The heavenly soldier'. In this story, an ordinary soldier fools a woman into thinking that he is sent from heaven. The mix-up occurs when the woman sees the soldier walking in the road and asks him where is coming from, to this he answers *Péris* 'Paris'. Unfortunately, she hears *perédis* 'heaven', because of the similarity in the pronunciation, (152):

- (152) *Lé fomme et compris qui v'ni do*
the woman have.3SG.PRES understand.PP that come.3SG.IS from

Perédis:

heaven

'The woman understood that he came from heaven.'

(*Lo Soudère qu'vet o perédis*, LPL, 1904, p. 401)

Immediately the woman asks the soldier if he has seen her son who was a former soldier killed in battle. The soldier answers that, yes, he has seen her son, but dupes the woman into believing that her son is unable to enter the gates of heaven because he (the son) does not have any money. Upon hearing this, the woman gives the soldier the money earned from her cow and watches the soldier take off down the road. By the time her husband arrives, the woman is in tears from her encounter with the soldier. Her husband persuades her to tell him what happened. Observe her response in (153):

(153) ...*i n' ét pisset in soudère to-la que v'nisor do*
 it some have.3SG.PRES pass.PP a soldier there that come.3SG.IL from

Pérédis et j' l' y et demondet si n' avou-mé
 Heaven and I him it have.2SG.PRES ask.PP if NEG have.3SG.IS-NEG

vu not' fe.

see.PP our son

‘...a soldier came by who was from heaven and I asked him if he had seen our son.’ (*Lo Soudère qu’vet o perédis*, LPL, 1904, p. 401)

Although the *-zor* IL variant, (153), and the IS co-exist, (152), in the same text and appear to express similar meanings, it is hard to say for certain if they are in free variation without a bigger corpus and speaker elicitation. In line with Franz’s (1920) observations, it is plausible that, because of its modal meaning, the IL variant presupposes information that was not part of the shared pool of beliefs (i.e., common ground) held by the hearer, indicating a new (and surprising) state of affairs. In other words, this is the first time that the husband is hearing of the “heavenly” soldier. We would expect for the pluperfect *avou vu* ‘had seen’ in (153) to also be an IL form since there is a continuation of the referent (i.e., the soldier), indicated by the ellipsis of the subject pronoun. The switch in form may be due to a storytelling device wherein the narrator deliberately brings attention to the more salient event; the soldier hails from heaven. In opposition to the IL, the IS is by default dealing with information that is part of the common ground (i.e., given information). If the MP function is contributing to the structuring of information, then the variation evidenced between the IL and IS may be underlined by a discourse structuring use (i.e., given versus new information alternation), and will be discussed in more detail in the next section.

5.3.4 ASPECTUAL/DISCOURSE STRUCTURING

When viewed in isolation, the IL is predominantly used to denote past imperfective aspect. According to Comrie (1976: 24), imperfective aspect instantiates a situation that is viewed from within with explicit reference to its internal structure. Following Comrie (1976), I take the imperfective aspect to be delimited into the habitual and continuous aspect. Habitual aspect denotes an action that is customarily repeated (e.g., *I used to sing*) whereas continuous aspect subsumes progressivity, viewing a dynamic or stative situation as ongoing at the reference time (e.g., *I was singing*). Bybee, Perkins, & Pagliuca (1994) clarify the definition of imperfective aspect, stating:

an imperfective situation may be viewed as in progress at a particular reference point, either in the past or present, or one viewed as characteristic of a period of time that includes the reference time, that is, a habitual situation. (p. 126)

In French, the imperfective is restricted to the past (Bybee, Perkins, & Pagliuca 1994) as expressed by the *imparfait*. As a past imperfective, we can see that the IL expresses a range of imperfective meanings such as stative, in (154), and habitual aspect, in (155):

- (154) ...y s' aihayiai su lo banque ein piaire qu' **ottorre** daivant
he REFL sit.3SG.IS on the bench in rock that be.3SG.IL before

l' oberge do Chouau Bian...
the inn of horse white

‘He would sit on the rock bench that was in front of the White Horse Inn.’ (*Lo Juf-errant*, LPL, 1924, p. 250)

- (155) *Quand j ottore chu mo perre, j'ovorre quinze ans,*
 when I be.1PL.IL house my father, I have.1SG.IL fifteen years

jè nollorre è lé charrue derri li bu.
 I go.1PL.IL to the plough behind the oxen.

‘When I was at my father’s, I was fifteen, I used to/would go to the plow behind the oxen.’ (*Lo Tintin et lè doline*, LPL, 1925, p. 170)

In (155), the IL form *ottore* ‘be’ expresses a general state of affairs concerning the bench’s location. The IL form *nollorre* ‘go.1PL.IL’ describes a customary action over a long period of time during the year in which the narrator was fifteen years old (e.g., *quand j’ovorre quinze ans* ‘when I was fifteen’).

In addition to the stative and habitual construals, the IL can also express a dynamic process that is actively taking place at a particular point in time. Consider (156) extracted from a narrative from Moselle in which the main character, Baptiste, is tricked into thinking he can lay eggs:

- (156) *Ele preparor lo touyon dés couchons quand lo Bâtisse*
 she prepare.3SG.IL the food of.the pigs when the Baptiste

lè heuche.

her call.3SG.PRES

‘She was (in the middle of) preparing the pigs’ food when Baptiste called out for her.’ (*Quand lo Bâtisse fait lè j’lîne*, FDP, 1946, p. 77)

In this example, it is clear that the IL form of the activity verb *preparor* ‘prepare.3SG.IL’ is interpreted as a focalized progressive (Bertinetto, Ebert & de Groot 2000). According to Bertinetto, Ebert & de Groot (2000), a focalized progressive denotes a situation that is ongoing at a single point in time, the “focalization” point, which “may be overtly expressed in the sentence, or else it may be recovered through the context, being the

object of a presupposition” (Bertinetto, Ebert, & de Groot 2000: 527).⁹⁷ In this case, the reference time, introduced by the temporal connector *quand* ‘when’, is the single point in time at which the ongoing activity is viewed. Thus, the IL form is interpreted as holding at the very moment that Baptiste called his wife, that is, when she was in the midst of preparing the pigs’ food.

What is interesting is that, on the surface, there seems to be a division of labor when the IS is also taken into account. Consider the IS form of the verb *olè* ‘go.3SG.IS’ in (157). In this example, it has been two days since Baptiste has discovered that he is able to “lay” eggs (in reality his neighbor FanFan has tricked Baptiste by secretly placing eggs under Baptiste); Baptiste’s situation has gone from bad to worse over the matter of a couple of days:

- (157) *C’ olè de ma en pis ma!*
 It go.3SG.IS from bad in more bad
 ‘It was getting worse and worse!’ (*Quand lo Bâtisse fait lè j’lîne*, FDP, p. 76)

The developing state, which makes reference to Baptiste’s egg-laying capability, is conceptualized as a durative progressive that is evaluated with respect to a larger interval of time wherein “the actual duration of the event remains indeterminate” (Bertinetto, Ebert & de Groot 2000: 527).⁹⁸

In other contexts, the variation evidenced between the IL and IS suggests a subtle distinction relating to discourse organization where the event/state expressed by the IL involves some change of expectation on the part of the hearer. Take for instance the

⁹⁷ In standard French, focalized progressivity is also expressed by the periphrastic form *être en train de* + infinitive equivalent to English *be* + *-ing* construction (e.g., *je suis/étais en train de faire la lessive* ‘I am/was doing laundry’).

⁹⁸ In standard French, the durative progressive is expressed by the present tense or the *imparfait* (e.g., *elle joue/jouait du volley cette année* ‘She is playing/was playing volleyball this year’).

following excerpts from *Lis Gelines resucitaies!*, a text from Bas-Rhin that recounts the tale of a farmer, the narrator, who, upon coming back from working in the fields, finds that several of his chickens have fallen ill - floundering about, flapping their wings - and that even some of his chickens have died. In his despair, the farmer consults *le père* ‘father’ Trémolo, who concocts a spell to revive the deceased and ailing chickens. Before consulting *le père*, the narrator speaks about the events that occurred earlier in the day when he first becomes aware of his chickens’ illness. Upon his discovery, he quickly checks on his two brooding hens to verify their safety. In (158), the narrator employs the IS twice: the first to describe the brooding hen’s whereabouts *zo lè hoouaie* ‘on the hedge’ and the second to inform the listener of the state of affairs at reference time - that the brooding hens were *co vivantes* ‘still living’:

- (158) *Jè vè warre set lis dous covosses qu' ètines zo lè hoouaie*
 I go.1SG.PRES see.INF if the two hens who be.3PL.IS on the hedge

otines co vivantes.
 be.3PL.IS still living
 ‘I am going/went to see if the two broody hens who were on top of the hedge
 were still living.’ (*Lis Gelines resucitaies!*, LPL, 1921, p. 190)

In (159), the narrator then switches to the first IL *otinorre* (in bold) when referring to the ailing chickens, telling the listener how the sick and dead chickens were alive before he went off to work in the fields. We see the narrator switch back to the IS (underlined) when describing additional information about the sequence of events during the time that the chickens were alive. Another switch to the second IL *otinorre* (bold) occurs when the narrator talks once more about the state of the chickens being alive at an anterior time:

- (159) *noti gelines otinorre bien poutantes quan j' ovine nollai*
 our hens be.3PL.IL well living when we have.2PL.IS go.PP
- don lo prai, presque lè voye, ou aivei fai lo*
 in the field because the next-day where have.3SG.IS do/make.PP the
- càsis, j'ovei motai lô reihe don in q'vai décôte l' aicurei,*
 cassis I have.1SG.IS put.PP the residue in a pail next-to the stable
- et quan j'ottei v'nu quouaire mo r'tai, lis gelines ottinore*
 and when I be.1SG.IS come.PP look-for.INF my rake the hens be.3PL.IL
- tolai è traïin dè boquai d'don.*
 right-there in middle of eat.INF inside
 'Our hens were indeed carrying on when we left for the field, since the day before
 we had made some cassis, I had put the leftovers in a pail near the stable and
 when I had come back to look for my rake, the hens were right there in the middle
 of eating inside (of it).' (*Lis Gelines resucitaies!*, LPL, 1921, pp. 190-191)

Since it is the first time in the narrative that the speaker specifically mentions the state of *les gelines* 'the hens', I propose that the variation between the IL and IS relates to discourse organization; the IL indexes new information that is unexpected on the part of the hearer. As the story progresses, the narrator decides to go see *le père* 'father' Trémolo in order to find a solution to his problem. In (160), the narrator informs the hearer of his conversation with *le père*, describing the same events in (159) - that his hens were alive before going into the fields but ill upon his return. Interestingly, there is no use this time of the IL. I hypothesize that its absence is due to the fact that the hearer is convinced by this time that the chickens were alive despite having believed the opposite earlier in the narrative. Thus, we understand that the narrator is merely revisiting the previous points of his story and therefore has no need to make reference to the hearer's counter-expectation since the speaker and hearer share the same knowledge. Thus, the absence of the IL is expected in the absence of a counter-presupposition:

- (160) ...*et maimè j'li d'heu qui notti gelines **ottines** tô bin*
 and even I him say.1SG.PAST that our hens be.3PL.IS all well
- poutantes quan jè nolline ô prai, pesqu' elles mainginent lo câsis.*
 living when we go.2PL.IS to field because they eat.3PL.IS the cassis.
 '...and I even told him that our hens were all indeed alive when I went to the field
 because there were eating the cassis.' (*Lis Gelines resucitaies!*, LPL, 1921, p.
 191)

The coexistence of IL and IS forms suggests that one form has the potential to become the predominant form to express past imperfective aspect over the other. In fact, the IL's predominance is observable in some of the texts, as evidenced in *Lè Fomme qué s'noye* 'The drowning woman' where there are 25 instances of IL forms and only five IS forms. We find six instances of the IL, given in bold, in the first two lines alone:

- (161) Ç' **ator** in homme èca eune fomme qu' **évinnor** în gahhon.
 It be.3SG.IL a man still a woman who have.3PL.IL a boy
- Il **allor** vouèr bonne amie, mais sos gens ne*
 he go.3SG.IL see.INF good friend but his people NEG
- v'linrennor qu' i mérièusse èvon. Les gen d' lèye ne*
 want.3PL.IL that he marry.3SG.SUBJ with the people of her NEG
- v'lrinrennor mi li béié è cause qu' elle **ator** trop maligne.*
 want.3PL.IL NEG her give.INF because she be.3SG.IL too malign
 'There once was a man and a woman who had a son. He was visiting his
 girlfriend, but his parents didn't want him to marry her. Her parents didn't want to
 give her away because she was too malignant.' (*Lè Fomme qué s'noye*, 1881, pp.
 437- 438)

Moving forward in the narrative, we see that in the closing lines in (162) there is variation between the IL and the IS, the latter of which is used five times in comparison to the six uses of its dialectal counterpart:

- (162) *N' y avor des gens qui faninnor sus l'*
 some there have.3SG.IL some people who gather.3PL.IL on the
- bord de lè reverre; i li ont d'mandé qu' ast*
 bank of the river they him have.3PL.PRES ask.PP that be.3SG.PRES
- ce qu' i crièe et qu' ast -ce qu' i quoirée?*
 it that he yell.3SG.IS and that be.3SG.PRES it that he look.for.3SG.IS
- I li é répondu qu' i branciennor bèhe-lè avo*
 he them have.3SG.PRES respond.PP that he balance.3SG.IL there with
- sè fomme, qu' elle èvor cheu è l' eaufe, et qu'*
 his wife that she have.3SG.IL fall.PP to the water and that
- il lè quoirée. Les gens-lè li ont dit que*
 he her look.for.3SG.IS The people-there him have.3PL.PRES say.PP that
- si elle avait cheu bèhe-lè qu' elle ne pouvét-me ète*
 if she have.3SG.IS fall.PP there that she NEG able.3SG.IS-NEG be.INF
- haut-ci. I li é dit qu' si qu' elle pouvét ben*
 high-there he them have.3SG.PRES tell.PP that also that she able.3SG.IS well
- ète haut pace qu' elle allor tojo lo contraire des autes,*
 be.INF high because she go.3SG.IL always the contrary of others
- ainsi qu' elle puvor ben allè conte l' eaufe.*
 also that she able.3SG.IL well go.INF against the water
- ‘There were some people who gathered along the riverbank; they asked him what he was looking for. He answered them that he was balancing over there with his wife, then she had fallen in the water and that he was looking for her. The people told him that if she had fallen over there, then she couldn’t be high up. He told them that she could be high up because she was always going against others, so she could go against the water.’ (*Lè Fomme qué s’noye*, 1881, p. 439)

The high frequency of the dialectal form in (162) suggests that it is encroaching upon the standard form’s domain. When two forms coexist, it is not unexpected that one form takes over the other. Observe the dominance of the IL - it is the only past imperfective form available in this short narrative concerning two *wolous* ‘fishermen’, (163):

- (163) *I n' évor dous wolous qu' étinorent su enne wôle*
 it NEG have.3SG.IL two fishermen who be.3PL.IL on a raft
- é l' Avotte de le Grand-Ravon. Lis âves tinorent hâtes.*
 to the Avotte from the Raon l'Etape The waters hold.3PL.IL high
- Ein vol inque que cheuye e le revere et se recommandor*
 In here one that fall.3SG.PRES in the river and REFL pray.3SG.IL
- au Grand Saint Nicholas. Lo wolou qu' etor su le*
 to Great Saint Nicholas The fisherman who be.3SG.IL on the
- wole, comme i ne sevor mi noge, ne pouwor*
 raft as he NEG know.3SG.IL NEG swim.inf NEG able.3SG.IL
- mi le save, il le dehor: "N t' y fie me,*
 NEG him save.INF he him say.3SG.IL NEG you it count.2SG.IMP NEG

noge tojo."
 swim.2SG.IMP always

'There once were two fishermen on a raft from Raon l'Etape to Avotte. The water was high. One of them fell in the river and/then prayed to Holy Saint Nicholas. The fisherman on the raft, seeing as he didn't know to swim, couldn't save him, and said: "Don't trust yourself, keep swimming." (*Lis Doux wolous*, LPL, 1927, p. 387).

The eventual use of the IL form as the only past imperfective form in certain sub-varieties of Lorrain may point to it evolving into a default past imperfective verb. However, since all new information is presented in the text, it also seems reasonable to posit that a new versus given information distinction is at play. Thus, whether or not the IL is the default past imperfective verb requires further research.

To summarize, the IL form when viewed in isolation functions as a past imperfective verb. When we look at larger stretches of discourse, the interplay between

the IL and IS is more apparent and appears to be related to a discourse-structuring function.

5.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, I offered a more in-depth analysis of the functions of the IL. As it grammaticalizes, *or(es)*, in conjunction with the *imparfait*, shows an extension of meaning from a temporal to a non-temporal domain. I found that the temporal readings behaved like the proximal deictic *now* and distal deictic *then*, for narrative structuring purposes. As the particle extended into the non-temporal domain, I proposed that it developed into a logical connector of result equivalent to ‘so, thus, therefore, as a result’. As an MP, *or(es)* was shown to assume emphatic values to strengthen the speaker’s commitment to his/her utterance. Related to the modal meanings, the IL may also function as a marker of new information in contrast to the IS, which appears to index old information. In Chapter 6, I offer a detailed discussion of the changes involved in the grammaticalization of the IL with respect to the functions observed in this chapter.

CHAPTER 6

THE *IMPARFAIT LORRAIN* WITH RESPECT TO GRAMMATICALIZATION

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will show that the development of the IL involves a number of processes associated with grammaticalization discussed in Chapter 2. As we will see, the processes of generalization/pragmatic strengthening (section 6.2; (inter)subjectification (section 6.3); decategorialization (section 6.4); phonological reduction (section 6.5); layering, divergence and persistence (section 6.6) all play a prominent role in the grammaticalization of the IL. Furthermore, I observe that the processes of paradigmaticization and obligatorization (section 6.7) are tightly connected to the communicative context. After discussing the processes of grammaticalization, I conclude the chapter in section 6.8 by summarizing my findings.

6.2 Generalization

Previous researchers (Oberlin 1970[1775]); Jouve 1864; Haillant 1885; Hingre 1887; Lanher 2005; Richard 1973) noticed a functional shift of the temporal adverb *or(es)* into the non-temporal domain. As seen in the previous chapter, the semantic analysis of *or(es)* with respect to the IL provides empirical evidence to support the claim that *or(es)* had

developed into an MP, passing first through a stage as a logical connector. Overall, the development of *or(es)* follows the tendency for a linguistic sign to pragmatically strengthen over time, which in turn leads to generalization in meaning. A diachronic path can be reconstructed on the basis of the tendency for MPs to develop over three stages, arranged along the pathway of change in (164), (example (60) in Chapter 2):

(164) Diachronic stages of MP development (Diewald 2011: 381)

- d) Stage (i) represents the source: here we have original particles or members of other word classes with demonstrative or relational meaning.
- e) Stage (ii) marks a relation between two textually expressed events/instances.
- f) Stage (iii) shows the fully developed grammatical markers indicating the noninitial state of an utterance.

At this point in the study, I will show how the development of *or(es)* in post-verbal (i.e., clause-internal) position can be traced back to Old French and evidences a similar pattern of development to that of German MP's.

6.2.1 STAGE (I)

In Stage (i), the proximal deictic meaning of *now* is the basic sense of *or(es)* from which all other meanings stem. In its purely temporal use, *or(es)* is a clause-internal temporal adverb referring to the time of speaking and is typically non-initial. Empirical, diachronic evidence from Old French shows that the temporal *now* meaning is available in post-verbal position in combination with the *imparfait*; a meaning that is particularly clear when the proximal adverb is juxtaposed to a distal adverb like *jadiz* 'already, before', as

evidenced in (165). Here we see that *or(es)* serves to objectively localize in time the state of having sustained injuries.

- (165) *Que je comparroye les grans doulours que je soustenoye ores*
 that I compare.1SG.IS the big pains that I sustain.1SG.IS ORES
- à celles que j' avoye jadiz souffertez à mon corps,*
 to those that I have.1SG.IS already suffer.PP to my body
- et cuidoye estre de touz les home le plus chetif.*
 and think.1SG.IS be.INF of all the men the most weak
 'That I were to compare the great sufferings/wounds that I have sustained (**up to**)
now to those that I have **already** suffered on my body, then I believe to be the
 weakest of all men.' (ABE,⁹⁹ c. 1280 [NCA])

As noted in previous studies (Loobyuck 2010), *or(es)* acquired a distal meaning equivalent to 'then'. To help explain how the distal meaning arose I will refer to evidence from another Old French (OF) 'now' word - *ja* (< Latin *iam* 'now'). While the lexical item itself disappeared over time, vestiges of OF *ja* are found in Modern French, e.g. *déjà* 'already' (< *des* 'from' + *ja* 'now') and *jamais* 'never' (< *ja* 'now' + *mais* 'more'). According to Mosegaard Hansen (2014), *ja* was a highly poly-functional item in OF, its most basic sense being that of a temporal adverb meaning 'now', (166), which derived directly from its etymological source *iam* 'now, as of now' in Latin.¹⁰⁰

⁹⁹ ABE corresponds to *Traduction de la première épître de Pierre Abélard*

¹⁰⁰ Mosegaard Hansen (2014) cites up to nine different meanings of *ja* in Old French.

- (166) *Dame, fait* *il, ja m' en vois gié Comme*
 Lady, do/make.3SG.PRES he DEJA me LOC go.1SG.PRES I as
li vostre chevaliers.
 the your knight
 'Lady, he said, **now** I depart as your knight.'¹⁰¹ (*Escoufle*, p. 49, v. 1460: BFM, 1200-02 [Mosegaard Hansen 2014: 146, ex. 21])

Over the course of time, *ja* began to take on more distal meanings, (i.e., 'then'). According to Hansen, the change from 'now' to 'then' evidenced in (167) results from a change in the deictic center - the adverb changes from text-external speech time to text-internal time in combination with the imperfect because the imperfect is aspectually similar to a present in so far as topic time is included in the process:

¹⁰¹ English translation provided by Mosegaard Hansen (2014).

- (167) *Lancelot qui son pooir i met le fiert si durement qu'*
 Lancelot who his power he put.3SG.PRES him hit so hard that
- il abat lui et le cheval a terre si*
felenesement
 he knocks.3SG.PRES him and the horse to earth so violently
- qu' a poi qu' il ne li a le col brisié, il*
 that barely that he NEG REF have.3SG.PRES the neck broke.PP he
- point oultre et revient arriere et voit*
 start.3SG.PRES beyond and come.back.3SG.PRES behind and see.3SG.PRES
- le cheval qui ja se relevoit, et il le prent au*
 the horse who DEJA REFL get.up.3SG.PRES and he it take.3SG.PRES at.the
- frain si le meine a .i. arbre . . .*
 reins then it lead.3SG.PRES to a tree
 'Lancelot, who puts all his power behind it, hits him so hard that he knocks him
 and the horse to the ground so violently that he almost breaks his neck, he spurs
 on and comes back and sees the horse which was **then/at that moment** getting
 up, and he takes it by the bridle and leads it to a tree . . .'¹⁰² (*Graal*, p. 132, c.
 1220 [Mosegaard Hansen 2014: 154-155, ex. 39])

Following this reasoning, I propose that *or(es)* underwent the same type of semantic change in the presence of the past imperfective form, as evidenced in (168):

¹⁰² English translation provided in Mosegaard Hansen (2014).

- (168) *Endementres que Perceval menoit son duel en tel manière si*
 While that Perceval lead.3SG.IS his duel in such manner then
- escoute et ot venir une friente de chevax, et*
 listen.3SG.PRES and hear.3SG.PRES come.INF a noise of horse and
- il oevre les ieuz et voit .i. chevalier armé qui*
 he open.3SG.PRES the eyes and see.3SG.PRES a knight armed who
- s' en aloit le grant chemin de la forest, et*
 REFL LOC go.3SG.IS the large path of the forest and
- chevauchoit le cheval que li vaslez menoit ore, et Perceval*
 riding.3SG.IS the horse that the page lead.3SG.IS ORES and Perceval
- conoist bien le cheval.*
 know.3SG.PRES well the horse
 ‘While Perceval was arranging his harness in a particular way he listened and
 heard a noise from a horse approaching and he opened his eyes and saw an armed
 knight who was coming up the large path in the forest and riding on the horse that
 the page was leading **then/at that moment** and Perceval remembered the horse
 well.’ (*Queste del saint Graal* ca. 1225 ou 1230 [BFM 2016])

Before moving on to the development of the logical meaning, I would like briefly to comment on the possible extension of *-zor* in (132) to mean ‘already’. While it is unclear whether *or(es)* underwent the shift in meaning from ‘now, at this time’ to ‘already’ at stage (i) or prior to stage (i), it seems reasonable to suggest that *or(es)* could take on a phasal meaning such as ‘already’. Such a claim is consistent with the literature on phasal adverbials (e.g., English *already, still, not yet, not anymore*), that is, adverbs expressing that a state continues or does not continue or has or has not come into existence (van der Auwera 1998). It has been shown that ‘now’ words are likely sources of ‘already’ words (e.g., OF *ja* ‘already’ < Latin *iam* ‘now, as of this moment’ (Mosegaard Hansen 2014) due to their close semantic relationship (van der Auwera 1998):

(169) John is at home **now**.

(170) John is **already** at home.

(van der Auwera 1998: 32)

In the above two examples, *now* and *already* are close in meaning: John being at home now presupposes that he is at home already and John being at home already presupposes that he is at home now.

6.2.2 STAGE (II)

The logical connective reading derives from inferences invited by the narrative in that situations follow one another in a sequence. Because there is temporal overlap between two states then there is an implicature that these events are logically successive and that one event is the result of another through a temporal ordering. Therefore, we would expect *or(es)* to acquire a logical connective meaning especially given the abundance of cross-linguistic evidence to attest the change from temporal to logical (see Hopper & König 1991: 195). While previous literature reports that *or(es)* in its textual connective function occurs in clause-initial position, such a meaning is available in clause-internal position as well, as evidenced in (171) from the early thirteenth century:

(171) *Quant longuement les out gardez, li riches hom s'*
 When long time them have.3SG.PRES keep.PP the rich man REFL

est porpensez Que son oile poet bien vendre,
 be.3SG.PRES think.PP that his oil can.3SG.PRES well sell.INF

N' i voleit or pas plus attendre, Quer en la contrée
 NEG there want.IS ORES NEG more wait.PP because in the country

ert bien chier.

be.IS well expensive

‘When he had kept them for a long time, the rich man thought long and hard that his oil could sell well, **thus** he didn’t want to wait any longer, because in the country it was very expensive.’ (*Le Castoiment* 1213pm13, Conte XIV, *Li jugement del oile qui fu prise en garde* [NCA])

In (171), *or(es)* instantiates the relation of result between the first proposition of the oil selling well and the second of the rich man not wanting to wait any longer. In sum, the use of the temporal adverb to report that a textually expressed event/instance/state is the result/consequence of prior event/state presupposes that if one event follows from another in time then it is assumed that second event is a result of the first.

6.2.3 STAGE (III)

As discussed in Chapter 2, it is clear that *or(es)* had already developed into a DM by the OF period where it appears primarily in clause-initial position to signal disagreement with a previous utterance, as shown in (58), and repeated for convenience in (172):

- (172) (S'o) - *Et si manjai, jo vos afi, des. III.*
 and then eat.1SG.PAST I you assure.1SG.PRES of.the three
- patez un et demi, et do vin bui tant con je*
 pates one and half and some wine drink.1SG.PAST as much as I
- vos, de ce ne fis je pas que fos.*
 want.1SG.PRES of this neg do/make.1SG.PAST I NEG that fool
- (S_o) - *Par mon chief, dit li Orgueilleus, or as*
 by my head, say.3SG.PRES the Proud ORES have.2SG.PRES
- tu dit que oltrageus, qant cest chose a regeie. Or*
 you say.PP that outrage when this thing have.3SG.PRES profess.PP ORES
- as tu bien mort deservie, qant tu en iés*
 have.2SG.PRES you well die.PP deserve.PP when you it be.2SG.PRES
- verais confés.*
 truly confess.PP
- ‘...and then I ate, I assure you, one and a half of the three pates, and I drank as much wine as I wanted, I didn’t make such a fool of myself from this. Upon my head, said the Proud, **indeed** you have said such outrageousness, given that one has professed this, **indeed** you have truly death deserved, given that you have/are truly confessed.’ (*Le Conte du Graal*, vv. 3833-3851 [Ollier 2000a: 457, ex. 11])

It is also clear that an MP use has also developed by this same period.¹⁰³ Ollier (2000b) points to several instances in Old French in which *or(es)* is syntactically located in clause-internal position to signal the speaker’s subjective stance toward a previous

¹⁰³ It is important to note that MP’s are distinguished from discourse particles primarily on syntactic grounds: MP’s cannot occur clause-initially, being restricted to what is known as the “middle field” (Abraham 1991a, b) - the area between finite and non-finite verb forms. Because the correlation between MP’s and the “middle field” is not without debate (Diewald & Ferraresi 2008), I will use the term clause-internal instead.

(explicit or implicit) assertion. I give one example below in (173) where *or(es)* serves as an MP in an interrogative context:¹⁰⁴

- (173) *Cuidiez*¹⁰⁵ *vos or vangier vostre ire et vostre*
 believe.2PL.IS you ORES avenge.INF your anger and your

 mautalant a moi?
 resentment to me
 ‘Did you (**really**) think to avenge your anger and resentment upon me?’
 (*Perceval*, vv. 4378-4385 [Ollier 2000b: 35, ex. 2])

Ollier argues that by using *or(es)*, the speaker is commenting on the fact that the hearer holds an opposite belief (not-*p*) to what is being asserted by the speaker (*p*). In other words, the speaker openly refutes the hearer’s implicit denial. Through the use of *or(es)*, the speaker updates the common ground by correcting the hearer’s assumption. Moreover, I speculate that a focus effect arises as result of the added implicature that the truth-value of the host utterance *p* is contrasted with an alternative implicit utterance of the opposite polarity ($\neg p$). Thus, *or(es)* marks the assertion as being a consequence of the communicative context and in doing so serves to relate a host utterance to an implicit (or explicit) utterance in order to fill in an information gap that exists between interlocutors.

With respect to the mechanisms of change, metonymical semantic change underlies the shift from temporal to non-temporal meanings - through contiguity there is semantic change. A different, new and implied, meaning is mapped onto already existing matter and therefore the temporal adverb/logical connector is recruited for new pragmatic functions. After the resultative implicature is conventionalized, it is pressed into a new service where the logical connective meaning is recruited to express that one utterance

¹⁰⁴ Ollier’s (2000b) study only investigates interrogative contexts.

¹⁰⁵ This verbal form is orthographically ambiguous between a present indicative form and an *imparfait* form.

naturally follows or is in response to another utterance. Thus, at stage (iii), the modal implicature arises through the communicative context. The increase in pragmatic meanings goes hand in hand with subjectification and (inter)subjectification, the topics of the next subsection.

6.3 Subjectification

The increase in speaker/hearer involvement as *or(es)* moves from a less grammatical to a more grammatical category (i.e., temporal > logical > modal) can be understood in terms of subjectification. As mentioned previously in Chapter 2, subjectification involves meanings becoming more based in the speaker's judgement/perspective and can be illustrated by the well-known cline of semantic-pragmatic change discussed in Chapter 2 and repeated for convenience:

(174) Propositional > textual > interpersonal/expressive (Traugott 1982)

Based on the three different stages posited above, we can now situate the development of *or(es)* into an MP with respect to the path of change in (174). For the sake of consistency, I organize the development of *or(es)* on the first line in (175) along the grammaticalization cline identified by Diewald, Kresic & Smirnova (2009) with respect to the grammaticalization of German MP's. On the second line, I use Traugott's (1982) cline above to highlight the unidirectional shift from less subjective to more subjective meanings.

(175)	referential	>	textual/connective	>	non-initial/discourse-pragmatic
	propositional	>	textual	>	interpersonal/expressive

Beginning with stage (i), the temporal meaning ‘now, at the present moment’ is referential in nature, merely locating a situation on an objective (i.e., non-subjective) time axis. The shift from the referential ‘now’ to the referential ‘then’ meaning is best captured by Traugott’s (1989) Tendency I where “[m]eanings based in the external described situation > meanings based in the internal (evaluative/perceptual/cognitive) described situation. The textual connective (i.e., resultative) meaning that develops from the temporal one can be characterized as more subjective than either of the temporal readings since what is a logical correlation between situations is largely dependent on whether or not the speaker views an event as logically following another. Thus, the logical meaning is increasingly based on the speaker’s subjective judgment and can be characterized by Tendency II (“[m]eanings based in the external or internal described situation > meanings based in the textual and metalinguistic situation (p. 35)). The change from logical to modal can be understood as an extension of a subjective meaning into an intersubjective meaning since modal markers access the speaker’s view/assumption about the hearer’s beliefs and aid the addressee in processing the information. Thus, Traugott’s (1989) Tendency III is at play - “[m]eanings tend to become increasingly based in the speaker’s subjective belief state/attitude toward the proposition” (p. 35) encompasses the change from logical to modal. In sum, *or(es)* follows the correlated path of subjectification, and its development illustrates all three tendencies of semantic change.

6.4 Decategorialization

Over the course of its grammaticalization, *or(es)* has undergone a process of decategorialization whereby it loses its status as an independent word to become a grammatical item, shown in (176).

(176) content item > grammatical item

In discussing decategorialization, it is worthwhile to understand to what extent the MP is viewed as a clitic since it is not unexpected for MP's to reach clitic status (Abraham 1991b; Wegener 2002); observe the full MP *denn* in (177) and its cliticized counterpart *-n < denn* 'then' in Bavarian German, (178):

(177) *Was hast du **denn** zu ihm gesagt?*
'What did you say to him?' (Wegener 2002: 386)

(178) *Was hast'**n** dann gesagt?*
'What did you say then?' (Wegener 2002: 379)

Clitics or "a set of unaccented words that tend to be found attached to a more heavily accented form" (Hopper & Traugott 2003: 142) form phonological units with their hosts (i.e., the more heavily accented form). Without speaker data, *or(es)*'s clitic status is very difficult to discern in terms of phonological criterion. Another salient criterion for determining clitic-hood is orthography. In other words, whether the author represented *or(es)* as less (e.g., *avo to* 'have.3SG.IL') or more bound (e.g., *avo-to* 'have.3SG.IL') to the verb. However, even this evidence cannot convincingly support a clitic stage since orthography alone is not a robust enough criterion to categorize *or(es)* as a clitic.

There is a further complication in categorizing *or(es)*'s morphosyntactic status given that clitics exist on a continuum with inflectional affixes in which there is no clear

demarcation between the two (see e.g., the status of Italian clitics in Russi (2008), Chapter 9). Thus, one must also tease apart to what extent *or(es)* is a clitic versus an affix. Although it may not be possible to state in absolute terms the difference between the clitic phase and the affix phase, I can show that *or(es)* in terms of the IL does evidence characteristics of clitichood and affixhood by applying Zwicky & Pullum (1983: 503-504) six criteria for distinguishing affixes from clitics:

- a. Clitics can exhibit a low degree of selection with respect to their hosts, while affixes exhibit a high degree of selection with respect to their stems.
- b. Arbitrary gaps in the set of combinations are more characteristic of affixed words than of clitic groups.
- c. Morphophonological idiosyncrasies are more characteristic of affixed words than of clitic groups.
- d. Semantic idiosyncrasies are more characteristic of affixed words than of clitic groups.
- e. Syntactic rules can affect affixed words, but cannot affect clitic groups.
- f. Clitics can attach to material already containing clitics, but affixes cannot.

With respect to criterion A, the IL variants never attach to any other linguistic host other than a verb. Such a high degree of host selection points to a more affixal status. In terms of criterion B, the IL seems to exhibit gaps in members as it is only compatible with a restricted set of verb forms. According to previous literature, the particle *or(es)* is only compatible with the *imparfait* and the *plus-que-parfait* verb forms. In my data, I found that the use of the *or(es)* particle is also compatible with the conditional form (glossed as

conditional lorrain or CL), attested only in the Barrois dialect in the west of Lorraine, (179):

- (179) *Se te n' vins' m pour m' eîlder Je n'*
 if you NEG come.2SG.PRES NEG for me help.INF I NEG

sâroïe-to m' ravoûyer.
 know.1SG-CL me pull.out.INF
 'if you didn't come to help me I wouldn't know how to pull myself out.'
 (*Chanson de Village*, MSAL, 1894, p. 357)

It is difficult to discern if the data in (179) is a true instance of an actual *conditionnel lorrain* in addition to the two well-known paradigms (i.e., *imparfait* and *plus-que-parfait*) since there are very few examples, two to be exact, available in the entire data set. More data is needed to understand to what extent the IL variants are possible with other verbal paradigms (e.g., present, future).

Criterion C refers to an inflectional affix affecting the host phonologically (Norde 2009). We can see that the IL *-or* variant impacts the root at the phonological level; there is a shortening of the host's stem as evidenced in (4) and repeated below in (180) for convenience:

- (180) *il chantor* < *il chantait or*
 he sing.3SG.IL he sing.3SG.IS ORES
 'he was singing.' 'he was now singing.'
 (Horn 1922: 271)

We would expect the form *chantaitor* but what is attested is *chantor*; the loss of phonological material marks a transition from affix to clitic. The other IL variants have no such phonological effect on the verb. Rather they exhibit external sandhi effects such as liaison and enchainment (see Chapter 4, section 4.2.2; e.g., *chantait* [ʃɑ̃.tɛ] + *or(es)* [ɔʀ]

→ [ʃũ.tɛ.tɔr]). These two phonological processes highlight a tight syntactic relationship between the host element (i.e., the verb) and the IL variant, suggesting that non-*or* IL variants behaves more like a clitic.

Criterion D refers to the observation that clitics do not contribute a meaning that is not identical to the function of the clitic's associated full form. With this being said, it is not quite clear how Criteria D is applicable to the IL since we have seen that different meanings of the IL variants associated with the full form arise as a result of grammaticalization.

Criterion E refers to the observation that affixes are inseparable from their roots. In the data, the -*or* variant can never be separated from verb (**ne ott-m-ore*); observe that negation can only occur around the verbal form (181). On the other hand, intervening elements, such as the negative particle -*m*, are attested in the presence of non-*or* IL variants, (182), a good sign for clitic status.

(181) *n' ottore me*
 NEG be.3SG.IL NEG
 'wasn't'

(182) *n'avit-m-za*
 NEG have.3SG-NEG-IL
 'didn't have'

That intervening elements are restricted to clitics is another indication that non-*or* variants have a more clitic-like status.

The strongest evidence in support of clitic status is Criterion F, which states that clitics can attach to other clitics. We can see evidence that the non-*or* IL variants appear to attach to the negative post-verbal clitic -*m*, as shown in (182). The -*or* variant has a more affixal status since it cannot attach to anything other than the host.

In sum, criteria A and B highlight a more affixal status of all IL variants. However, it should be stated that Criterion B is not as useful since it is unclear to what extent the IL variants can occur with other verbal paradigms. Criterion C shows that the *-or* variant is more affixal than non-*-or* variants. Like Criterion B, criterion D is not as helpful in determining the morphosyntactic status of the IL variants. Criteria E and F are the strongest indicators that the *-or* variant is affix-like that and that the non-*-or* variants are more clitic-like. Thus, after applying Zwicky and Pullum's (1983) criteria, it seems that the *-or* variant has reached a more affixal stage, (184), whereas the other IL variants (e.g., *-zo*, *-za*, *-to*) appear to be more clitic-like in their behavior, (183).

(183) Decategorialization of non-*-or* variants

content item > grammatical item > clitic

(184) Decategorialization of *-or* variant

content item > grammatical item > clitic > affix

In sum, we have to assume that the *-or* variant passes through a clitic phase on its way to becoming a verbal affix, suggesting that the decategorialization process has gone one step further.

6.5 Phonological changes

Phonological erosion, which often accompanies grammaticalization, is most evident with the early loss of final *s* (e.g., *ores* > *or*). We would not expect to find an increase in phonological substance, but the reinterpretation of the liaison consonant as the particle's

word-initial consonant, as discussed previously in section 4.2.2, has led to an unexpected gain in phonological weight (e.g., *-zor*). While this may seem counter to grammaticalization, it does not present a problem since IL variants like *-zor* do not carry as much phonological bulk as its predecessor (e.g., *ores*) and still represents a net reduction in the overall phonetic weight. Additionally, there are variants that have both increased and decreased in phonological material in the sense that the liaison consonant (e.g., [z] and/or [t]) is added but final *r* is dropped (e.g., *-to*, *-zo*, *-za*). In sum, over the course of its grammaticalization, the IL particle has experienced maintenance, loss and even an unexpected gain in phonological substance.

6.6 Layering, divergence and persistence

On the synchronic axis, we find layering or different functions coexisting for one form. For instance, as we have already seen, *or(es)* has temporal, resultative and modal functions. These layers are the result of divergence: a diachronic process where the original form remains alongside further grammaticalized forms. In addition, I also find that *or(es)* functions as DM, (185), and is layered alongside the MP in (141), repeated below for convenience in (186), in the same text:

Discourse Marker

- (185) **Or** *sus*, *Batissot*, *Epoût'* *vô* *mos sabots!*
 ORES on *Batissot*, bring.2PL.IMP see.INF my clogs
 Come on, *Batissot*, bring me my clogs!' (*Noël d'Ormançon*, MSAL, 1894, p. 341)

Modal Particle

- (186) *Noeïe ! véci Noueïe Qu'ost do ben' errivé ! Depeuil pô*
 Noel here Noel that be.3SG.PRES thus well arrive Since more
d' daw mil ans j' trouvins-to l' tein maw
 of two thousand years we find.2PL-IL the time much
grand!
 grand
 'Noel, Noel has thus indeed come! We have (**indeed**) found the season/time very nice for more than two thousand years.' (*Noël d'Ormançon*, MSAL, 1894, p. 340)

As a DM, *or(es)* is in clause-initial position and is followed by another DM *sus* 'on'. These two elements are not integrated into the sentence (i.e., are set off from the rest of the sentence) as evidenced by the use of the comma. In collocation, these two markers signal to the hearer that the speaker is impatient. In the MP use, on the other hand, *or(es)* is always post-verbal and integrated into the sentence to index the speaker's commitment to the truth of the proposition.

Persistence is particularly relevant in the case where the clause-internal particle displays traces of its original temporal meaning, as shown in example (142) from the previous chapter and repeated below in (187) for convenience:

- (187) *Mai Coulai, n' este meu vû, Inq des Ros si*
 But Nicholas NEG be.2SG.PRES NEG see.PP one of.the kings so
caimu, Et qu ato zor ca pu nor qu ijn cremet,
 tired/worn out and who be.3SG IL still more black than a trammel
La bin lou temps que son visage n' esme l'évé;
 There well long time that his face NEG be.3SG.PRES-NEG wash.PP
 'But Nicholas, you have not seen, one of the kings so worn out, and was **now/therefore/indeed** even darker/blacker than a fireplace trammel, it has been a long time since his face has been washed...' (*Noël lorrain*, LPL 1909, p. 774)

6.7 Paradigmaticization and obligatoriness

When discussing MP's, I follow Diewald's (2011) definition of paradigmatic integration whereby two elements are cast in opposition to one another, one of them being "formally and notionally marked" and the other being "formally and notionally unmarked". For example, there is a functional difference between a modally-marked clause (e.g., *denn*) in (188) and non-modally marked clause in (189). By using the MP, the speaker marks the question as communicatively presupposed (i.e., given) (Diewald 2013):

(188) *Kommst du **denn** mit?*
Are you DENN coming along?

(189) *Kommst du mit?*
Are you coming along?

(Diewald 2011: 378)

In the modally-marked question in (188), the speaker is casting doubt about whether the hearer will come along or not. This question would be appropriate in a context where the speaker expects that the hearer is coming but something has come up that makes the speaker question the hearer's actions. In the non-modally marked question in (189), the speaker has no expectations to whether or not the hearer is coming and is simply asking the hearer whether they will or will not come.

Diewald (2011) considers the modally-marked clause as "non-initial" since it is response to an implicit initial turn, the pragmatically given unit (i.e., the speaker's expectations based on the communicative context). She considers the unmarked clause as "initial" since it is viewed as the first turn of a question-answer pair (i.e., there is no reference to speaker expectations). Given this observation, Diewald (2011) posits that a

paradigmatic opposition (i.e., non-initial vs. initial) exists between the two clauses, schematized in (190):

- (190) paradigmatic opposition
non-initial utterance vs. initial utterance

Returning to the IL, a parallel paradigmatic opposition is observed in Richard (1973) wherein the IL represents the formally and notionally marked variant (191) and the IS (192) refers to the formally and notionally unmarked variant.¹⁰⁶ I represent Richard's French translation in parentheses:

- (191) *j' olozo meji*
I go.1SG.IL eat.INF
(*c'est que j'allais manger*)
'it is that I was going to eat.'

- (192) *j' olo meji*
I go.1SG.IS eat.INF
'I was going to eat.'

(Richard 1973: 447)

Richard posits that the modally-marked sentence and the non-modally marked sentence both refer to a recent past situation in which the speaker was going to eat. However, the only difference is that the "marked" form refers to a presupposed proposition, indicated in parentheses, where no such relational meaning is present in the "unmarked" form. Specifically, like (188), the modally-marked clause in (191) makes reference to the speaker's expectations: the speaker believes that the hearer does not believe/know that the speaker was going to eat; hence Richard's addition of *c'est que* 'it is that' to the

¹⁰⁶ Recall from chapter four that form I refers to the "unmarked" form (i.e., IS) and that form II refers to the "marked" *imparfait* (i.e., IL).

translation. The speaker thus uses the modally-marked clause to clarify and/or correct the information gap between the speaker and the hearer. In (192), there is no such information gap; the non-modally does not make any reference to a presupposed unit of information; hence the absence of the modal particle. In sum, the modally-marked clause works in a context where an information gap is present and the non-modally marked clause is acceptable in a context where an information gap is absent.

Closely related to paradigmization is obligatoriness, which “refers to the fact that if there is a paradigm encompassing a set of opposite values and if these values are to be addressed, then a choice has to be made between its members [...]” (Diewald 2011: 367). What is interesting about the IL and the IS is that Richard (1973) observes that there is a certain amount of freedom that speakers have when choosing which *imparfait* form to use, “[n]os propres enquêtes nous ont permis de reconnaître une certaine marge d’indécision et de liberté dans beaucoup de contextes. Le même énoncé admet alors les deux formes I et II” [our own investigations have allowed us to recognize a certain margin of indecision and freedom in a lot of contexts. The same utterance allows both forms I and II] (p. 446). To what extent the MP is obligatory remains unclear, but what is apparent is that the choice between the two variants (i.e., modal versus non-modal) is most likely due to what Diewald (2011) calls communicative obligatoriness wherein the choice among the members appears to be driven by communicative factors (i.e. the intention of the user) and not by language-internal ones (e.g., concord, case, etc.).

6.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, I have discussed the processes and mechanisms underlying the grammaticalization of the *il*. In particular, I have uncovered several processes of grammaticalization such as generalization, (inter)subjectification, decategorialization, phonological reduction and phonological gain, layering, divergence, persistence that have played a major role in the development of the dialectal form. Crucially, I claim that the generalization of the temporal adverb *or(es)* takes place over three stages that are analogous to the grammaticalization pathway of German MPs. I also identified a separate process of subjectification whereby the temporal adverb gains in subjective (i.e., logical) and intersubjective meanings (i.e., modal), following the pathway posited by Traugott (1982). In discussing decategorialization, I found that the *-or il* variant is more affix-like and the non-*or il* variants are more clitic-like, suggesting that the *-or* variant has grammaticalized further. In terms of Hopper's (1991) principles of grammaticalization, I provided examples in which layering, divergence and persistence could be observed. When discussing paradigmaticization and obligatorification, I found it necessary to incorporate Diewald's (2011) idea of communicative obligatoriness.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

This study has re-examined the IL within the framework of grammaticalization. Previous atheoretical studies on the IL have painted an inconsistent picture of the form's origins and function(s). Some have claimed that the IL is a novel dialectal creation, leading scholars to posit a bi-partite imperfect paradigm. Others believe that the Old French temporal adverb *or(es)* still retains some semantic and syntactic independence from the imperfect verb. By couching the analysis of the IL in the framework of grammaticalization, I was able to give a more comprehensive and unified account of the puzzling phenomenon.

Chapter 2 introduces the framework of grammaticalization, discussing the processes and hypotheses entailed by such an approach. I incorporate different views of grammaticalization to give a more well-rounded discussion. I then outline the mechanism of semantic change known as metonymy, which draws upon pragmatic inferences to strengthen semantic content. To round out the discussion, I touch upon various criticisms of the grammaticalization approach. After this more general discussion on grammaticalization, I review some of the literature on *or(es)* in Old French, which shows that *or(es)* has undergone a grammaticalization process in which it has passed from the temporal domain into a non-temporal domain. Finally, I introduced the grammaticalization pathway undertaken by German MPs since my claim is that the

temporal adverb *or(es)* undergoes an analogous pathway as it develops into the IL construction.

I divide Chapter 3 into two main parts. In the first part of the chapter I give a brief overview of Lorraine, the region, and Lorrain, the language. In the second part of the chapter, I review three main studies on the IL from a geographic perspective. I discussed several maps from three different linguistic atlases. I then compared these maps to one another to show the geographic distribution of the IL across the regions of Lorraine and Alsace.

Chapter 4 examines previous accounts of the IL. Because the accounts were atheoretical in nature, they did not give a unified description of the IL. I was able to divide the studies into three main perspectives. In the first perspective, scholars viewed the IL as a verbal form that was in paradigmatic opposition to the IS. The prevailing claim reveals that the paradigmatic opposition between the IL and IS was thought to be underlined by a recent versus distant past specification. The second view supported the idea that the temporal adverb *or(es)* ‘now’ had acquired additional non-temporal functions. The third perspective is a composite of the two previous views. In light of these differing points of view, a reanalysis of the IL was needed.

In Chapter 5, I provide a re-examination of the IL. Through empirical evidence, my analysis reveals that as part of the IL, the temporal adverb *or(es)* is primarily equivalent to a *now* or *then* reading. I also show that the IL construction has acquired non-temporal functions in so far as *or(es)* behaves as a textual connective and as an MP. As a textual connective, *or(es)* relates two textually expressed events through a resultative relation; as an MP, *or(es)* indexes the speaker’s beliefs and attitudes and is thus epistemic in nature. Lastly, I found that the modal function of the IL may have been recruited for a discourse-structuring use to highlight new information.

The semantic analysis provided in Chapter 5 is then couched in a grammaticalization framework in Chapter 6. In doing so, the IL is reassessed with respect to the parameters and mechanisms underlying a grammaticalization process introduced in Chapter 2. Crucially, I found that generalization, subjectification, decategorialization, and phonological changes figured prominently into the grammaticalization pathway of *or(es)*. It was argued that the generalization of *or(es)* took place over three successive stages analogous to the pathway undertaken by German MPs. It was also shown that *or(es)* underwent a process of subjectification whereby meanings became more and more centered on the beliefs/attitudes of the speaker/hearer. Having examined the IL with respect to criteria discriminating between affixes and clitics, I found a difference in the morphosyntactic status of the IL variants. I also discussed how *or(es)* exhibits Hopper's (1991) processes of layering, divergence and persistence. Lastly, I incorporated a discussion on paradigmaticization and obligatoriness, parameters found to be important in the discussion on MPs.

By investigating the IL, the present study has shown that grammaticalization is a useful, explanatory tool for understanding linguistic phenomena. For instance, in this study, I found that the post-verbal (i.e., clause-internal) position appears to be crucial in the grammaticalization of the IL. More studies on the clause-internal position, which has been linked to modality, could help us understand how MPs grammaticalize and elucidate the differences and similarities between DMs and MPs in a more detailed manner. Additionally, viewing the IL through the lens of grammaticalization allows us to see how the dialectal form is connected to linguistic phenomenon in other languages, allowing for future cross-linguistic comparisons. Broadly speaking, by studying Lorrain, the present study contributes to the knowledge of an understudied and obsolescent variety of French and therefore connects to the fields of language documentation and dialectology.

Though the present study is meant to be a detailed analysis of the IL, it is by no means a complete account. Thus, the present study leaves many questions unanswered and opens the way for further investigation. For instance, future research could investigate the role, if any, that German, a language known for its wealth of MPs, played in the syntactic distribution of the MP *or(es)* in Lorrain in light of the social and historical connection with Germany. It would also be fruitful to investigate *or(es)*'s relationship to other temporal adverbs known to acquire non-temporal functions such as *encore* 'still' and *déjà* 'already'. More research on MPs in non-standard varieties could give us a more informed picture on the nature of MPs in general and situate non-standard varieties in a larger linguistic arena.

As we saw in section 6.7, the IL/IS opposition links back to communicative obligatoriness and since the concept itself is inherently conditioned by the communicative context, communicative obligatoriness is correlated to the social dimension of language. If Lorrain speakers have two systems available to them where standard speakers have one, we would expect interference between the two systems as Lorrain speakers move in and out of different communicative contexts (cf. Killie (2015) analysis of zero adverbs e.g., *real* and *-ly* adverbs e.g., *really* in English). Since we get the impression that the IL predominates in certain sub-dialects more than the IS and vice versa, we have to consider that the predominance of one over the other is driven by social factors. Perhaps the use of the IL over the IS could have been a way for Lorrain speakers to distance themselves from other speakers or as a way to identify themselves as Lorrain speakers as opposed to other French speakers or even German speakers to maintain identity. If the IL form is pressed into service to index some type of social function in relation to a more standard form then we could argue that the IL form has been

refunctionalized (cf. Lass (1990)). Thus, it appears that refunctionalization of the IL may have a sociolinguistic dimension, a topic for future investigation.

Another avenue for future research could examine the role that language obsolescence played in the grammaticalization of the IL. A sociolinguistic perspective in conjunction with the language-internal explanation provided in this study could offer more insight into how an MP ultimately fused to a verbal form. Moreover, further sociolinguistic investigation could also tell us more about the current geographic distribution of the IL in Lorrain and if there are any speakers left using the IL.

Appendix

Title	Lorrain variety (Department)	Date
<i>Adam</i>	Barrois	1896
<i>Au Conseil de Frimbo</i>	Nancy	1925
<i>Bonum vinum</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Chanson contre-révolutionnaire en patois lorrain</i>	-	1904
<i>Chanson de village</i>	Barrois	1894
<i>Chanson rustique</i>	Barrois	1894
<i>Fiaoue ou conte lorrain</i>	Luneville	1775
<i>Histoire racontée par une femme</i> ¹⁰⁷	(Vosges)	1864
<i>In Loup a in beura</i>	Luneville	1775
<i>Joujette</i>	Val des Faulx	1928
<i>La Chanson du crapaud</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>La Dernière "Angonie"</i>	Fraimbois	1924
<i>La Modestine à la procession d'Echternach</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>La Noce de la Génie</i>	Toul	1929
<i>La Pompe à incendie</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>La Veilleuse</i>	Fraimbois	1924
<i>Lai Mignote</i>	Barrois	1904
<i>Le Berger de Rapey</i>	canton de Charmes	1907
<i>Lè Chanson des hhodyons</i>	Hattigny, Pays de Lorquin	1904
<i>Le Code</i>	Frambois	1926
<i>Le Coupion du grand Louis</i>	Ligny-en-Barrois	1927
<i>Le Crachoir</i>	Fraimbois	1924
<i>Lé Crayotte dul Zidore</i>	Ligny-en-Barrois, Bar-le-Duc	1930
<i>Le Diable à l'église</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Lè Fomme qué s'noye</i>	Lachapelle and de Thiaville	1881
<i>Lè Jone biacèlle</i>	Serres	1881
<i>Le Lapin tricolore</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Le Loup et lo r'nè</i>	Diarville	1881
<i>Le Maire sans tête</i>	Fraimbois	1924

¹⁰⁷ I have given the title *Histoire racontée par une femme* since there is no accompanying title.

<i>Le Père Mathieu</i> ¹⁰⁸	(Vosges)	1864
<i>Le Permissionnaire</i>	Fraimbois	1924
<i>Le Petit château</i>	Neufchâteau (Vosges)	1898
<i>Lè Pette don jalat</i>	Bezaumont	1927
<i>Le Poivre</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Le Premier train du Pipiche</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Le Rateau</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Le Receveur à pied</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Lè Sacrements</i>	(Vosges)	1905
<i>Le Soffeu dè lune</i>	Val de Senones	1909
<i>Lé Thalie</i>	Val des Faulx	1928
<i>Les Blés qui f... le camp</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Lés Bônes-fontènes</i>	Delme (Moselle)	1926
<i>Les Doux braconniers</i>	Sainte-Geneviève	1925
<i>Les Erliques</i>	Fraimbois	1924
<i>Les Fâilles de féyé éco l'soutré</i>	Landaville	1881
<i>Lés Pompes à incendie</i>	-	1946
<i>Lis Dous wolous</i>	Raon-l'Etape	1927
<i>Lis Gelines résucitaies!</i>	Sâales	1921
<i>L'Méd'cié maugré li</i>	Barrois	1906
<i>Lo Boche qu'ot d'vènu fo ou bîn erraigi</i>	Sâales	1920
<i>Lo Fouyant</i>	-	1946
<i>Lo Grand discours</i>	-	1876
<i>Lo Juf-errant</i>	Sâales	1924
<i>Lo Lai ensorcelai</i>	Sâales	1912
<i>Lo Même méchant tirou d'vin</i>	Luneville	1175
<i>Lo Meriège de Groÿs Minique</i>	Fraize	1920
<i>Lo Mirèque</i>	(Vosges)	1905
<i>Lo Nouweu si lo ri</i>	Delme (Moselle)	1946
<i>Lo Paule dé lourre chu lis Groscolon</i>	environ Sâales	1912
<i>Lo Piat s'lot</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Lo Potot de mieu</i>	Raon-l'Etape	1927
<i>Lo Pouoteu de l'esprit</i>	Sâales	1923
<i>Lo Rave do curé</i>	Sâales	1911

¹⁰⁸ I have given the title *Le Père Mathieu* since there is no accompanying title.

<i>Lo R'vénant dè M'nauville</i>	Sâales	1914-1919
<i>Lo Corcier do Climont</i>	Sâales	1911
<i>Lo Soudère qu'vet o perédis</i>	Lubine, Raon-l'Etape	1904
<i>Lo Tintin et lè doline</i>	Sâales	1925
<i>Lo Vouodou d'chieuves dè Cora</i>	Sâales	1912
<i>Los Consèye in vouége è Metz</i>	-	1946
<i>L' de polain</i>	Einville-aux-Jars	1881
<i>Noël de Ligny</i>	Barrois	1894
<i>Noël de Morlaincourt</i>	Barrois	1894
<i>Noël des Riblaws</i>	Barrois	1893-1894
<i>Noël d'Ormançon</i>	Barrois	1894
<i>Noël lorrain</i>	-	1909
<i>On bassine...</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Parabole de l'enfant prodigue</i>	Vaudemont (Meurthe)	1879
<i>Po Cicile</i>	Gerardmer	1893
<i>Quand lo Bâtisse fait lè j'lîne</i>	Moselle	1946
<i>Quand y haille tortot haille</i>	-	1909
<i>Recueil nouveau de vieux noëls inédits et patois de la Meurthe et des Vosges</i>	Vic	1867
<i>Recueil nouveau de vieux noëls inédits et patois de la Meurthe et des Vosges</i>	Luneville	1867
<i>Recueil nouveau de vieux noëls inédits et patois de la Meurthe et des Vosges</i>	Gerardmer	1867
<i>Régime sec</i>	-	1929
<i>Vacances</i>	Fraimbois	1926
<i>Vexilla regis</i>	Toul	1925

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